

ARMSTRONG'S PRIMER

OF
ENGLISH HISTORY



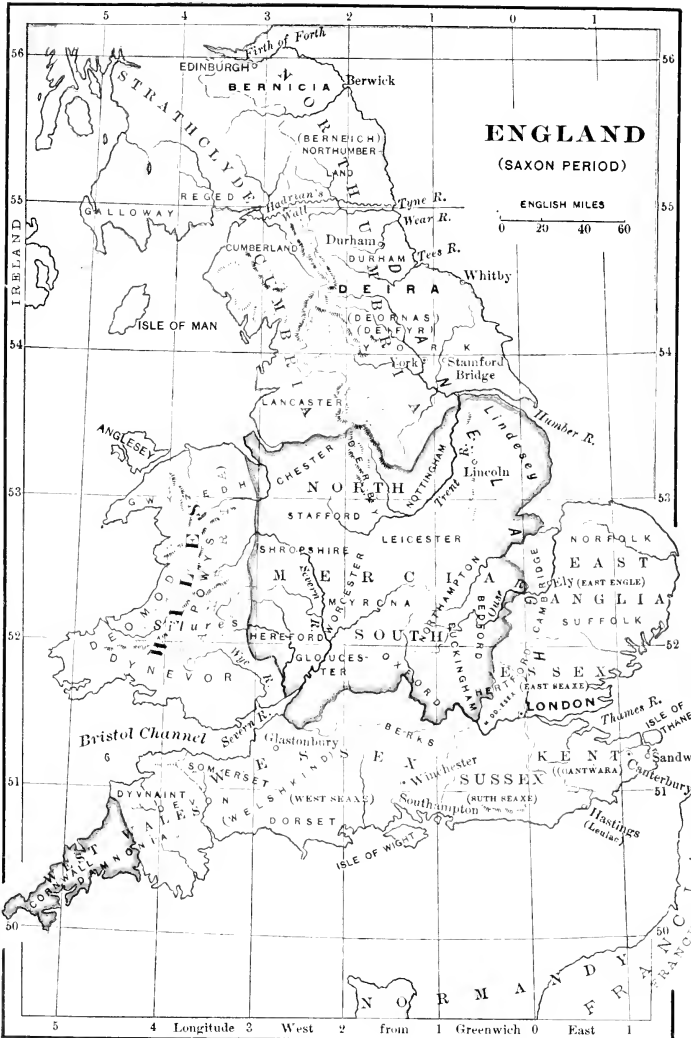
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ARMSTRONG'S

PRIMER

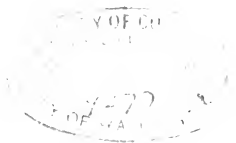
OF

ENGLISH HISTORY

FOR

SCHOOL AND FAMILY USE.

WITH MAPS.

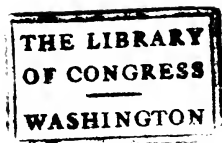


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P R E F A C E.

AN opinion has prevailed among able teachers that text-books are, as a rule, too large and too unwieldy. Experience has shown that beginners learn more rapidly and remember the facts much longer from small books containing the salient points of the subject logically arranged. This is especially true of the study of history. The student needs at first a clear, firm outline; and this once acquired, the subsequent filling-in can be accomplished with ease and without the aid of an instructor.

It is now several years since the author of this little book saw with pleasure the announcement that a *Primer of English History* was in preparation for the admirable series edited by the late J. R. Green. But the feeling of pleasure was changed to disappointment when the announcement proved to be without foundation.

Impressed by experience with the great need for such a work, especially in the large classes

that are found in many of our schools, and surprised that no abler hand had attempted it, the author of the *Primer of United States History*, encouraged by the unlooked-for success of that work, resolved to attempt the much more difficult task of reducing to like form the history of England.

To one who has had experience in this kind of work, it is not necessary to point out its difficulties. The field for selection of events is so large; the temptation to wander into the by-paths is so great; there are so many interests which cluster around individuals and epochs, that the attempt to arrange merely a consecutive outline has not always been successful.

It is hoped, however, that the *Primer of English History* will prove adequate to the purpose for which it was written—to save time and labor; and if the teacher can be relieved from the drudgery of note-giving, so that more attention can be devoted to the actual work of instruction, and if the pupil can, through its brevity, gain the time for more general and extensive study of the subject, the author will have accomplished the object intended.

PRIMER

OF THE

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY ENGLAND.

The Britons.—The first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of Celts who crossed the Channel from the continent opposite and made settlements. The most important part of their government was that exercised by the Druids; for they, besides attending to the religious duties, took care of the education of the young, decided all disputes, and were held in the highest esteem. Their religion was of a dark and mysterious nature; their places of worship were in gloomy recesses of the groves; and human sacrifice formed a conspicuous part of their rites.

The Roman Conquest.—In 55 B.C., Julius Cæsar, while carrying on his wars in Gaul, crossed over to Britain, remained there long enough to demand obedience to Roman authority, and then took his legions back to the Continent. The next year he returned to punish the Britons for not keeping their treaty; and though he met with considerable resistance, he succeeded in forcing the people to submit, and left them. The real conquest of Britain was not attempted for nearly a century. In A.D. 59 the Roman troops attacked the favorite seat of the Druids, destroyed their sacred groves and put

to death many of the priests. The Britons under Queen Boadicea made all possible resistance. London was destroyed and thousands of people perished. Julius Agricola at last, about the year 80, completed the conquest and extended Roman authority as far north as the Forth and Clyde.

The Picts and Scots.—The Britons were not allowed to enjoy perfect peace after the Roman Conquest, for their rude northern neighbors, the Picts and Scots, began to make incursions. During the first three centuries, the Romans gave them aid in repelling the intruders. At last, aware that no further help was to be expected from that quarter, since Rome itself was being invaded by the Gauls, they yielded to the advice of Vortigern, a native prince, and asked the Saxons to come to their assistance.

The English Conquest.—Three tribes of Northern Germany, the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes, took part in this conquest. They were fierce and warlike people and had already made inroads upon and seized the coast as far south as the Rhine, and had then extended their piratical voyages to Britain itself. These were the people whom the Britons called in for their defence, and before whom their enemies retreated. But the English saw here an opportunity for conquest, and determined to subdue the island for themselves. Accordingly, Hengest and Horsa, Jutish leaders, allied themselves with the enemy whom they had come to vanquish, and began hostilities against the Britons. Landing at the Isle of Thanet, the invaders crossed to the mainland and marched toward London. The Britons resisted, but without permanent effect. In 465 Northern Kent was abandoned and in 475 the English were masters of all Kent.

A second invasion took place in 477 when the

Saxon Ælla landed in Sussex, and after many battles with the Britons, gained possession of that country; and a third in 495 when the Saxons under Cerdic landed near Southampton and in 519 gained control of Wessex. From time to time settlements were made under these three tribes which resulted in forcing the Britons into the western part of the island and even out of the country, and in the occupation of the rest of the country by the English and the establishment of a number of small kingdoms by them. These all acknowledged one over-lord,—now it was Ethelbert of Kent, during whose over-lordship Christianity was established; now Edwin or Oswald of Northumbria. At last, about the year 800, Egbert ascended the throne of Wessex and gradually conquered Mercia, Northumbria, Kent, Sussex and Anglia, and became virtually King of Britain, although he did not assume the title. Next, he reduced Northern Wales and intended carrying his conquests farther north, but was obliged to turn his attention to another quarter.

The Danish Invasion.—Of the Northmen inhabiting the northwestern countries of Europe who carried their predatory expeditions to many places on the western coasts of the Continent, the Danes turned their attention toward Britain. At first they did not attempt to make settlements, contenting themselves with assaults upon the coast and the capture of booty, but toward the close of Egbert's reign they began to show an inclination to settle. In the midst of the terror which this state of affairs caused, Egbert died. His son and successor, Ethelwolf, was quite unable to cope with the difficulty and divided his kingdom with his son. At his death in 858, the throne was held in turn by his four sons, of whose reigns that of Alfred, the youngest, was the most important.

The first few years of his reign were spent as were those of his brothers in the struggle with the Danes. At one time he was obliged to hide himself from his foes, for they poured into the country in such numbers that he had no force with which to resist them. At last, however, he succeeded in getting together a number of his followers and made frequent and severe attacks upon the Danes, finally defeating them in 878, after which they submitted to him and settled in the districts which he ceded to them, namely, in East Anglia and Mercia. Alfred employed the years of peace which followed in improving his kingdom, rebuilding cities destroyed by the Danes, establishing a militia and a naval force, founding monasteries and schools, encouraging industries and commerce. After a second war with the Danes, Alfred died, leaving the nation again at peace.

The reigns of Edward and Athelstane were chiefly occupied with struggles with the Danes. Edmund drove them out of Mercia and won Cumberland from the Britons. His brother Edred gave the chief control of affairs into the hands of the Abbot Dunstan, who used his power for the advancement of his order. Dunstan was deprived of his power in the reign of Edred's successor, Edwy, but it was fully restored by Edgar, who made him Archbishop of Canterbury. The kingdom during this reign was not attacked by any foreign foe, but instead Edgar carried his arms against some of the provinces of Wales, Scotland, Ireland and the Orkneys.

The reign of Edward II. was short and uneventful, but during that of Ethelred ("the Unready"), who ascended the throne in 979, the Danes renewed their invasions. The king tried to get rid of them by buying them off—a mode of procedure which only induced further attacks.

In order to strengthen himself against the Danes Ethelred allied himself with Normandy (a province of France which had been settled by the Northmen) and completed the alliance by a marriage with Emma, the daughter of the Norman king. Ethelred's next movement was a massacre of the Danes in England, in 1002. But in the following years the invasions were repeated, and in 1013 Ethelred fled to Normandy and left the Danish Sweyn King of England. Sweyn died before he had time to establish his power, but his successor, Canute, learning that Ethelred had been recalled to England, sailed from Denmark in 1015 and, landing in England, marched toward London. A treaty was made between him and Edmund Ironside (Ethelred's successor), by which the Danes gained possession of Northern and Edmund of Southern England. When, however, Edmund died, as he did in 1016, Canute claimed the throne.

The Danish Kings.—Canute's first action was to win over the English nobles by giving them offices of power, and the people by establishing justice. In the fear that Normandy would press the claims of the two sons of Ethelred and Emma, he proposed a marriage with Emma, and secured the friendship of Normandy. Upon Canute's death in 1035, his son Harold succeeded to the English throne, and Sweyn to the Danish. Harold I. had to meet a threatened civil war. Canute had promised that Emma's son, Hardicanute, should succeed him in England, and the powerful Earl Godwin took the latter's part in the claim to the succession. War was averted by the division of the kingdom—Harold taking the part north of the Thames, and Emma holding the southern for her son. Hardicanute ascended the throne when Harold died, and during the two years of his reign aroused the discontent of

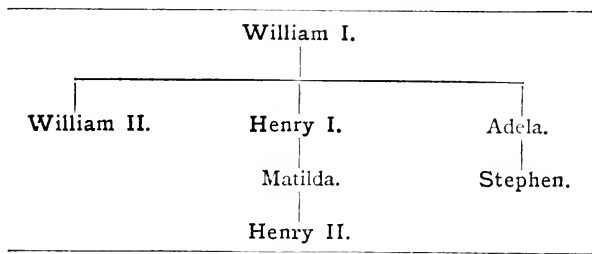
his people by his demand for money to buy off the Danes.

The Saxon Kings Restored.—The English did not hesitate, upon Hardicanute's death, to proclaim as king Edward the Confessor, the brother of Edmund Ironside. Moreover, he was in England at the time, and his claim was supported by Earl Godwin, whose daughter he married. But now other dangers began to threaten the English. The young king had been educated in Normandy, and felt a strong regard for the Normans and their ways. It was, therefore, not unnatural that he should surround himself with them. The sight of strangers filling so many prominent offices, especially in the Church, aroused the jealousy of Godwin and other English nobles. When at last an opportunity offered, Godwin refused to carry out one of Edward's demands. In answer to a threat of punishment, he and his sons raised a force to defy the king; but Edward's party was strengthened by the presence of two powerful northern earls, who were jealous of Godwin's power, and the earl and his sons were obliged to leave the country, and their property was confiscated. The next year Godwin and his son Harold collected forces, and landed at London. The people made no resistance, and the assembly of wise men declared that they had been unjustly banished, and ordered the restoration of their property. Alarmed at this, many of the Norman favorites fled from England; and Godwin having died, Harold became the chief councillor of the king. The only Saxon whom Edward would make his heir, died before Edward himself; so that, at his death in 1066, his kinsman, William of Normandy, claimed the throne, saying that Edward had made him his heir, and that Harold had sworn to aid him in gaining the crown. But Harold had gradually

become more and more powerful, and immediately upon Edward's death was chosen king.

CHAPTER II.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF NORMAN KINGS.



CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Scotland.</i>
William I. William II.	Philip I.	Malcolm III. Donald VII. Duncan II.
Henry I.	Louis VI.	Edgar. Alexander I. David I.
Stephen.	Louis VI. Louis VII.	Malcolm IV.

THE NORMAN KINGS.

The Conquest.—This act aroused William, who immediately demanded the throne. Harold answered by driving the Normans out of England.

Preparations were made for war, and the Norman fleet arrived off Sussex in September. Harold had also been called upon to repel an attack from the Norwegians. A battle took place in September at Stamford Bridge, in which the invaders were defeated and their leaders killed. He then marched against his other foe, and at Senlac, near Hastings, on October 14, a great battle was fought, in which Harold was slain, the English defeated and England placed at the mercy of her conqueror. This victory won, William marched toward London, where the two most powerful English earls, Edwin and Morcar, aroused the people and proclaimed Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, king. But the English were again defeated, so that Edgar himself yielded to the authority of William, who, in order to secure himself, caused his coronation to take place in December.

His next movement was to so act that the conquered people should have as little as possible to complain of. Although all offices of importance were placed under the control of Normans, yet he allowed most of the English to retain their lands and other property. He undid most of Harold's acts excepting those relating to the dignity of Edgar Atheling, whom he kept near him and treated with consideration.

In 1067, leaving his brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, in charge of affairs in England, William returned to Normandy. But so jealous were the English of the power of the Normans, that his departure was the signal for an outburst of dissatisfaction all over the country. The king hastened back as soon as he heard of the state of affairs, and from this time determined so to reduce the English that they would not have strength to rebel again. He soon found it necessary to lead a force northward against Morcar,

Edwin and others who were rousing the north against the Normans. Submission was wrested from the insurgents; but the next year the disturbance broke out afresh, the malcontents being assisted by the Danes. York, which was held by the Normans, was taken and the garrison killed. William first bribed the Danes to leave the country, then again forced the English to submit, and laid waste the large tract of land between the Tees and the Humber in order to prevent further invasion by the Danes. Two years later he advanced even into Scotland, whose king, Malcolm, had given refuge to Edgar Atheling and had stirred up the northern nobles in rebellion. The expedition resulted in Malcolm's oath of fealty to the conqueror. The great estates that came into the possession of the crown by confiscation after these insurrections, William gave to his Norman followers.

After the conquest William removed most of the English prelates from their offices in the Church and appointed Normans instead. Of these the most famous was Lanfranc, whom he made Archbishop of Canterbury. He demanded that all decrees made by the Church should be first approved by himself, and exacted the same homage from prelates as from nobles.

When William left Normandy, that province was consigned to the care of his oldest son, Robert; but in 1078 he was obliged to carry across the Channel an army of English soldiers to war against this son. Several battles took place before a reconciliation was effected, after which Robert returned to England with his father, and was even sent against Malcolm of Scotland in retaliation for that monarch's invasion of England. Upon William's death in 1087, Normandy and Maine fell to the share of Robert, and William, the second son, started at once for

England, where he hoped to be crowned by Lanfranc in accordance with his father's wishes.

The Feudal System.—The introduction of Feudalism was one of the changes made by the Norman Conquest. The king became the lord of all the land; and Saxon and Norman noble alike held the position of vassal, receiving land from the king for which they held themselves bound to serve their lord with money and soldiers when occasion demanded. In return the lord was bound to give them protection in time of danger. The vassal generally let others hold parts of his land under him, when the same relations were repeated. Many of these nobles were so powerful by means of their wealth and the number of their retainers, that they would have been dangerous to the king if he had not held the reins of government with a firm hand, and checked their power in every way. Legislative power lay in the hands of the king and the Great Council, consisting of the higher clergy and the barons.

William II., 1087-1100.—It needed all possible expedition on the part of the prince and Lanfranc in order to secure the crown, for many of the nobles would have preferred Robert to reign over them. But William first secured himself by seizing some of the fortresses of the kingdom and by appropriating the treasury; then he made promises of liberties to the people which won their favor. He soon began to make demands upon the revenues of the Church. For several years after the death of Lanfranc he kept the archbishopric of Canterbury vacant, appropriating its revenues for his own purposes. At last, Anselm, a Norman abbot, was invited by the king to fill the place, and before long he demanded that the money which belonged to Canterbury should be returned. This so enraged

William that Anselm thought it wise to leave the country (1097) ; and the pope threatened William with excommunication.

As soon as William was secure in England, he began a war with his brother of Normandy. When this had been brought to a close, they united forces against a younger brother, Henry, who, feeling that he had been neglected by both, began to make incursions from his stronghold at St. Michael's Mount. He was obliged to yield to superior forces, and was deprived of his possessions.

During this reign all Europe was agitated by the crusade preached by Peter the Hermit. Twenty years after the conquest of Jerusalem by the Turks, Peter the Hermit made a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre, and promised to rouse Europe to the necessity of freeing the holy city from the dominion of the infidels. He himself went from city to city, everywhere painting in glowing colors the outrages upon the city and upon pilgrims. Pope Gregory VII. had already thought of arming Europe against Asia, but it was left for Urban II. to carry it out. A plan was determined upon by a council of the Church held at Clermont in 1095. The cross was chosen as the emblem of the crusade ; and the pope was asked to lead the army. He declined to do this, but urged every one to aid the enterprise in some way. None of the great sovereigns of Europe took part in the crusade, but many princes of the second rank were its leaders. Among these was Robert, Duke of Normandy, who, in order to raise money with which to fit out his followers, was obliged to sell his kingdom to his brother William. The princes of Guienne and Poitiers offered in 1099 to do the same thing, and William was about to sail for France to take possession when he was killed while hunting.

Henry I., 1100–1135.—By an agreement made between William and Robert, the latter was heir to the throne of England. But he was in the Holy Land when his brother died, and Henry, who was in England at the time, taking advantage of this, seized the treasure, and having gained over some of the prelates, was crowned king. In order to secure himself upon his throne, Henry granted a charter in which he promised that the barons should be freed from some of the exactions of his predecessors, that the people should be protected under the laws of Edward the Confessor, and that the Church should not be deprived of its revenues. His next act was one calculated to win the approval of the people—of those at least who retained an affection for their English kings. Henry chose for his wife, Matilda, a great-grandchild of Edmund Ironside, and daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. This marriage united the English and Norman houses.

But Robert did not intend to relinquish his kingdom without a struggle. On his return in 1101 from the Holy Land, he took possession of Normandy, which readily yielded to him, and then led an expedition into England. He landed at Portsmouth, where he was met by an army under Henry. In accordance with the advice of Anselm and others, an agreement was made between them by which, upon promise of an annual pension, Robert gave up all claim to England except in the case of Henry's death without children. Henry now took advantage of Robert's lax government of Normandy to obtain possession of that country for himself, and led two campaigns against it, in the second of which, at the battle of Tenchebray in 1106, Robert was taken prisoner together with many of his nobles—among them Edgar Atheling. Robert was

brought to England, where he died after long imprisonment. Edgar was also brought to England, but was set at liberty and pensioned.

Although Henry had coveted Normandy, its possession was the cause of many wars and difficulties, and his presence was constantly required on the continent. While returning from one of his expeditions thither, the ship which carried his only son struck upon a rock and was lost. This left the throne without a male heir. Henry had one other child, Matilda, who married first the Emperor of Germany, Henry V., and, after his death, Geoffrey Plantagenet, the Earl of Anjou. The son of this marriage was called Henry, and Henry of England exacted from the nobles a promise that this child should be his successor. In 1135 Henry died, and a struggle for the crown ensued; for there was another claimant.

Stephen, 1135-1154.—William the Conqueror had a daughter, Adela, who married Stephen, Count of Blois. Two of her sons, Stephen and Henry, had been guests of the late king, and by him Stephen had been presented with great wealth, and Henry had been created Bishop of Winchester. Stephen had also strengthened himself by marrying the daughter of the Count of Boulogne. Now Stephen claimed that Henry had said that he was to inherit the throne, and he was accordingly crowned by the Archbishop of Canterbury in December, 1135, though without the consent of nobles or people. Before long, however, Robert of Gloucester planned an insurrection to overthrow Stephen and place Matilda on the throne; and about the same time David, King of Scotland, led an army into Yorkshire in support of Matilda's title. After several destructive inroads into Northern England, he was met by English nobles, and in the battle of the Standard (so called because a cruci-

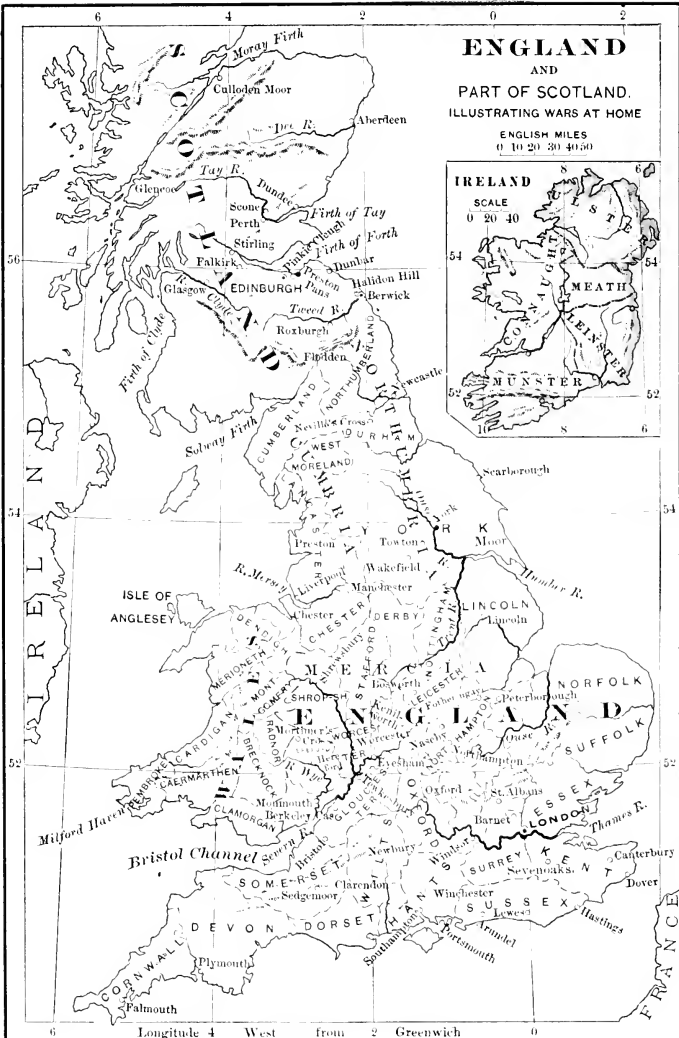
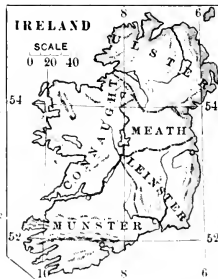
fix was carried as an ensign by the English), was defeated with great loss and compelled to retire. Just at this time it happened that Stephen was engaged in hostilities with some of the clergy in consequence of some overbearing measures against them. At this juncture Matilda arrived in England, and took up her quarters at Arundel Castle. War immediately broke out between the parties, and a most distressing series of disasters followed.

In 1141 Stephen was captured and imprisoned, and Matilda's claim recognized. But Matilda's refusal to yield to a petition for Stephen's release from imprisonment, even on condition of his surrendering his claim to the throne, caused a fresh revolt in his favor, and Matilda was besieged at Winchester. She made her escape in the night through the snow, but Robert of Gloucester, her chief supporter, was captured. After five years more of war and tumult Matilda returned to Normandy. In 1153 Matilda's son Henry invaded England, and gained such advantage over Stephen that an arrangement was effected between the two princes by which Stephen retained the crown during his life, but acknowledged Henry as his successor. His death in the next year made Henry King of England.

AND

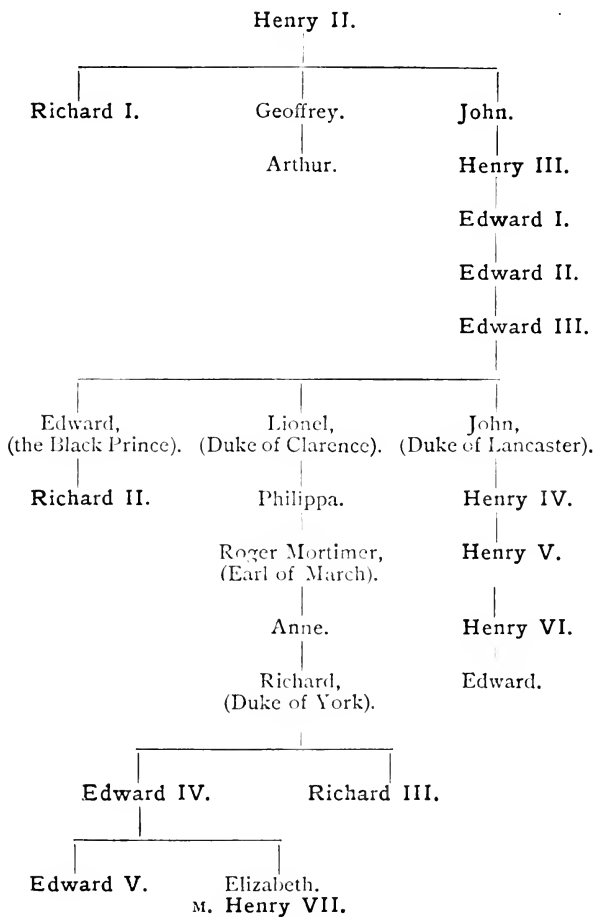
ILLUSTRATING WARS AT HOME

ENGLISH MILES
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CHAPTER III.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF PLANTAGENET KINGS.



CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Scotland.</i>
Henry II.	Louis VII.	Malcolm IV.
Richard I.	Philip II.	William I.
John.		Alexander II.
Henry III.	Louis VIII.	
	Louis IX.	
	Philip III.	
Edward I.	Philip IV.	Alexander III.
		John Baliol.
Edward II.		Robert I. (Bruce).
	Louis X.	
	Philip V.	
	Charles IV.	
Edward III.	Philip VI.	David II.
	John II.	Edward Baliol.
	Charles V.	Robert II.
Richard II.	Charles VI.	Robert III.

THE PLANTAGENET KINGS.

Henry II., 1154-1189.—Besides his English dominions, this prince was lord of more than a third part of France, his territory there embracing the entire western part from Normandy to Aquitaine, the southern portions being the dowry of his wife Eleanor. He ascended the throne without opposition. His first act was to revoke many of the measures taken by his pred-

ecessors, and to restore the authority of law. He also restored the value of the coin of the country, which had depreciated in the last reign. He formed an alliance with Louis of France, and betrothed his little son Henry to Margaret, a French baby-princess.

In 1162 Henry entered upon a long struggle with the Church. Gradually the clergy had encroached upon the power of the crown, and Henry desired to put an end to this, and prevent its repetition in the future. In order to insure his success, he caused Thomas à Becket to be chosen Archbishop of Canterbury on the death of Theobald. This Becket had risen step by step until he had become the king's chancellor, had been rewarded with great wealth, and had been entrusted with the education of Prince Henry. But no sooner had he been invested with the archbishopric than he began to guard jealously the rights of his order, and when the king's commands ran counter to the power of the clergy, he opposed the king with great vigor. Many of the bishops were willing to concede some of the king's demands, and at last a council was called at Clarendon (January 25, 1164), when many of the desired changes were made. These "Constitutions of Clarendon" removed from the ecclesiastical to the civil courts certain trials, gave the king the right of confirming or approving the election of bishops, and of dictating to them in certain matters. When Becket found himself alone in his open opposition to these measures, he also accepted them, but only to regret doing so when he found that the pope did not approve his action. He then urged his fellow-bishops to defy the king. Henry was by this time so angered against Becket that he sought excuse to ruin him, but Becket fled to the Continent, where he was received by Louis of

France and by the pope. Hostilities followed between Henry and Louis, and between Henry and the pope, but a reconciliation was brought about, and Becket returned to England. The troubles were not yet over. Henry had deemed it prudent that his son Henry should be crowned during his father's lifetime, anticipating a possible excommunication on account of his trouble with the pope. This had been done in Becket's absence, and immediately on his return that prelate suspended the Archbishop of York for thus usurping his rights. When Henry heard of his interference he broke forth in violent words against the insolence of the priest; and some of the gentlemen of his household interpreting these as expressing a desire for his death, went secretly to Canterbury and killed him. Henry was greatly concerned about this murder, as he felt that he would be held responsible for it. He succeeded, however, in convincing the pope of his innocence, although legates were sent from Rome to make investigations. After a few years Becket was canonized, and miracles of many kinds were said to be performed at the costly shrine which was erected above his burial-place.

Henry had long wished to add Ireland to his island kingdom, so he seized an opportunity which offered in 1156. The King of Leinster, who had been expelled from his kingdom, appealed to Henry for aid, and as he offered to hold his realm as the vassal of England, Henry acceded to his request in so far that he gave permission to certain nobles to aid him. Later, Henry himself went to Ireland and found English power supreme. The Irish submitted to him, and he left Richard de Clare a seneschal of Ireland.

In order that there might be no ground for dispute among his children at his death, Henry

divided his possessions among them during his life. To Henry, the eldest, he gave England, Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; to Richard, Guienne and Poitou; Geoffrey had Brittany through his wife Constance; John was to have Ireland. Not waiting for their father's death, however, the princes in 1173 demanded their kingdoms, encouraged by their mother and by Louis of France and aided by some powerful nobles. Henry was obliged to take up arms against his children and he reduced them to obedience. An invasion of the Scots also gave Henry some trouble, but they were repelled and Berwick and Roxburgh given to England. In 1183 Prince Henry died, and three years later Geoffrey also died when just about to open a war with his father.

While preparing for a crusade in 1187, Henry was forced into a war with his son Richard and Louis of France, which resulted in his making many concessions to the former. Worn out with wars and rebellions among his children, this great king yielded to despair upon finding his favorite son, John, taking part in these insurrections, and died in 1189 at Chinon.

Richard I., 1189-1199.—As soon as Henry was dead Richard realized how wrong his conduct had been, and as if to make reparation, selected for his ministers those who had served his father. The story of his reign is but the story of his military exploits and the persecutions of the Jews. On the very day of his coronation the people fell upon some Jews who had ventured to the ceremony and many were murdered. Other parts of England were the scenes of similar outrages.

Richard made every effort to raise money for a crusade, of which he, Philip of France and Frederic Barbarossa of Germany were to be

the chief leaders, and at last joined his forces with those of Philip near Burgundy. From that point they took different routes, Richard going by way of Marseilles. On his way he reduced the island of Cyprus because of its inhospitable treatment of Berengaria, whom he had recently made his wife. He then sailed for Palestine. Then followed the siege of Acre, in which, as in his other exploits, Richard maintained his reputation for valor. But between Philip and Richard there was great rivalry, each claiming to be the superior of the other, and at last Philip sailed for France, leaving Richard in full command. He marched from Acre to Ascalon, conquering as he went, but when at the height of his success he was obliged to make peace with Saladin, the great leader of the Saracens, because the allied forces would remain with him no longer.

Information had already reached Richard that John was plotting to usurp his throne, and also that Philip was intriguing against him. Accordingly he hastened home, taking care, however, to avoid France. While passing through Germany in disguise in 1192, he was arrested by the order of the Duke of Austria and imprisoned. Philip and John made a treaty for his final overthrow, but both failed in gaining adherents to their cause. At last Richard was set at liberty and escaped from the country, although with difficulty, and in 1194 reached England, to the joy of his people and to the confusion of his brother.

During Richard's imprisonment Philip invaded Normandy, where as in Anjou and Poitou there seemed little loyalty to their English sovereign. Richard hastened across the sea to check Philip. He secured the Norman border by building a castle on the Seine, and hostilities

and truces followed each other in rapid succession, until Richard received a wound which caused his death (1199).

John, 1199-1216.—On Richard's death, Anjou, Maine and Touraine claimed allegiance to Arthur, son of Geoffrey and Constance of Brittany, while John was acknowledged in England and Normandy. In order to wrest his continental dominions from Arthur and his ally Philip, John went over to Normandy and in part succeeded. But his success did not last long; for war soon broke out afresh, and some of the English barons whom John had offended revolted and gave their assistance to Arthur. During the siege of Mirabeau, Arthur fell into the hands of John, by whom he is supposed to have been murdered. This so aroused Poitou that it and several other provinces rose in rebellion, and Philip made an easy conquest of the country in spite of John's vigorous efforts to prevent it. John's attempts to raise means for a renewal of the war with Philip were frustrated by his primate, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Earl Mareschal.

Shortly after this the primate died, and John, in order to secure himself from all future opposition from this quarter, ordered the Bishop of Norwich to be elected to the vacancy and sent messengers to the pope to obtain his approval. But secretly some of the monks had chosen their sub-prior, Reginald, and had sent him to Rome for confirmation. The pope refused to acknowledge either, and ordered the election of Stephen Langton. Furious at the interference of the pope, John expelled from the kingdom the monks who had caused the trouble and refused to acknowledge Langton. The pope now laid an interdict upon the kingdom, and, when the king defied him by confiscating the property

of the clergy who obeyed the interdict, he went a step further and excommunicated the king. Still John would not submit. The pope now released the king's subjects from allegiance to him and gave Philip permission to invade the kingdom. But when Philip's army was ready for an invasion, an immense army was ready to meet him and the danger was averted by the capture of a number of French ships by an English fleet.

John now determined to avenge himself upon Philip. Otho of Germany was persuaded to make an invasion of France from the north, while John roused the barons of Poitou in the south. Just at this moment John found himself in the midst of other dangers. The Welsh revolted; the King of Scotland showed that his sympathy was with the pope; many of the barons were pledged to Philip, and others secretly opposed to the king. In the hope of securing an alliance which would materially aid him in resisting Philip and reducing his own subjects to submission, John yielded to the demands of the pope, received the archbishop and promised to repay his extortions from the Church. His diplomacy had the effect of removing the excuse for Philip's invasion. He then carried out his plan of an invasion of France, although most of his barons refused to go with him. But France rallied round her king, and between Lille and Tournay, the battle of Bouvines was fought, which completely overthrew John's power on the Continent.

The king returned to England, to find the barons no longer in secret but in open resistance to him, and in January, 1215, they presented their demands. John asked for time, which he spent in seeking a way out of the difficulty. Seeing none, and finding that the few who stood by him

advised submission, John agreed to meet the barons on an island in the Thames near Runnymede. Here on the 15th of July the Great Charter was presented and agreed to. Its terms were not new. They had been expressed in the charters of Henry I. and Henry II.; but the difference lay in the fact that, while the latter were grants from a king to a people, the Great Charter was a contract between king and people. By it all classes were granted the same protection against injury. The barons asked not only justice from the king to themselves, but also justice from man to man throughout the realm. In order to secure execution of its provisions, twenty-four barons were to form a council, with the right of declaring war upon the king if the provisions were not carried out. John's anger at this was very great, and he waited for aid from Rome to free himself from his bondage. The pope, vexed that the trouble between king and barons had not been left to him to decide, issued in August a bull against the charter, excommunicated the barons, and suspended Langton from the primacy. Troops came to John's assistance, and he began a conflict with his barons, which might have ended in his success had not they appealed to Philip of France for help. In April, 1216, Louis, Philip's son, landed in Kent. John fled to Wales, and died while making a march upon the north.

Henry III., 1216–1272.—The young king was a child of nine years at the time of his father's death, and the government was at once assumed by William, Earl of Pembroke, who caused the prince to be crowned, and issued the charter in the king's name. He then marched against Louis in the south of England. One by one the barons deserted the French prince until he was obliged to treat for peace and leave the kingdom.

The death of the Earl of Pembroke left the control of affairs in the hands of Hubert de Burgh, who found himself surrounded by difficulties. He was annoyed by the claims of Rome to hold a share in the government during Henry's minority. The barons, whom John's tyranny had united in their anxiety for the charter, were difficult to restrain. These Hubert suppressed with the aid of Stephen Langton, who, moreover, demanded and received from the king a confirmation of the charter.

When Henry grew up it was discovered that he had inherited his father's ideas of government; that he believed the king should be absolute sovereign; and that the promises made by the charter should be set aside. He desired to get back his foreign dominions; and he felt bound by religious and political motives to Rome, especially as Rome could free him from observance of the charter. He manifested weakness of character, was easily influenced by favorites, and surrounded himself with Poitevins and other foreigners upon whom he heaped favors, to the annoyance of the English barons.

After the death of Langton in 1228, Rome made heavier exactions both from the clergy and laity of England. Hubert was held responsible for the firm resistance which the laity made to these exactions, and Henry, already enraged because he was the chief obstacle in the way of a war for the recovery of his French possessions, deprived him in 1232 of his office. His removal left Henry unchecked. He now resolved to deprive the officers of state of their power, that he might reign supreme. His extravagance caused him to make severe exactions from the people, until at last the barons refused to grant further supplies. Notwithstanding this the king made a fruitless attempt to regain Poitou, which not

only impoverished the treasury, but involved the kingdom in debt. He also accepted from the pope the kingdom of Sicily for his son Edmond, and promised to raise money to aid in the conquest of that island.

In 1258 Henry summoned a parliament to make arrangements for a campaign against the Welsh Llewellyn, who had already invaded England and defeated Prince Edward, and to raise money for his Sicilian scheme. The barons, led by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, and the Earl of Gloucester assembled in arms and demanded that twenty-four of their number should decide upon the manner in which the realm should be represented in the government. By the "Provisions of Oxford" which they prepared, the Great Council or Parliament was to assemble three times in the year, and a royal council of fifteen was appointed. These provisions led to others in which further reforms were made. The foreigners who opposed them were driven from the country. Peace was made with the Welsh, and also with France by the terms of which Henry gave up his claims upon the French provinces. Further payment of money to Rome was forbidden and England's claim upon Sicily abandoned.

When de Montfort returned from France, whither he had gone to treat for the peace, he found himself deserted by Gloucester and many others who had gone over to the king. The breach had been opened before Simon's departure, when he urged upon the barons the necessity of carrying out the reforms. In 1260 Henry said that he should not keep his part of the compact, as the barons had not kept theirs; so he announced his intention of resuming his Sicilian plan, and forbade a spring Parliament. The pope absolved Henry from his oath, and Leices-

ter sought refuge in France. But the death of Gloucester in 1262 placed Leicester again at the head of the barons, and the fact that the young Earl of Gloucester joined him, added to his power. The strife went on with varied results, until in 1264 the difficulty was laid before Louis IX. of France for arbitration. Louis decided that the king should not be so hampered in his government, and annulled the Oxford Provisions. But this only roused the barons again, and in May, 1264, a severe battle was fought between the two parties at Lewes, in which Leicester gained the day and took the king and his brother prisoners, thereby compelling Prince Edward to make terms for their release.

Leicester's power had now reached its summit. He summoned a Parliament in 1265, in which was represented each borough besides the barons and clergy. This was the first time that the commons were recognized as a part of the governing body. Hitherto they had only taken part in granting subsidies to the crown.

Not long after this Prince Edward, who had surrendered himself as hostage for his father, made his escape; and an alliance with Gloucester, who had deserted the barons, gave him strength too great for Leicester to resist. On August 4, 1265, the battle of Evesham was fought, which resulted in the overthrow and death of de Montfort, and the reëstablishment of the king's power. In 1270 Edward left England for a crusade, and during his absence Henry died.

Edward I., 1272-1307.—As Edward found that England was quiet under the government of the Earls of Gloucester and Cornwall and the Archbishop of York, he remained on the Continent nearly two years. The measures laid before his first Parliament, which he summoned in 1275, showed what he intended to do. Taxes

were imposed, and the laws of previous reigns arranged with system. His attention was then called to Wales.

Since Llewellyn, the Prince of Wales, had refused to do homage to Edward on his accession, the king marched against that principality. The desertion of many of the Welsh princes left Llewellyn at Edward's mercy. Edward was very moderate in his demands upon the conquered prince—remitted a fine which had been imposed for refusal of homage, and allowed him to marry the daughter of Simon de Montfort. For four years Wales was at rest, and during that time Edward's attention was given to judicial reforms. At the end of this time a revolt broke out in Wales, which Edward met with characteristic promptness. Llewellyn was killed in battle, and when, six months later, the chieftains submitted, Wales became a part of England. But although Edward tried to establish English law and justice, the attempt was not altogether successful, and it was not until the time of Henry VIII. that Wales was represented in Parliament. As Edward's oldest son was born at Caernarvon, he was called the Prince of Wales, a title ever since borne by the oldest son of the reigning sovereign. In 1286 Edward went to France to work reforms in the government of his dominions there, and remained on the Continent for three years, at the end of which time his presence was demanded by Parliament, which refused to grant a tax in his absence. In the next year (1290) occurred a violent outbreak against the Jews, which resulted in their expulsion from the kingdom.

Edward was now obliged to set everything else aside and give undivided attention to affairs in the north. It had been arranged that the heiress to the Scottish crown and Edward the Prince of Wales should by their marriage unite the two

kingdoms. The death of the princess before this could be accomplished left the throne vacant. Immediately arose a dispute among the principal claimants, John Baliol, Robert Bruce, and John Hastings, each a descendant of a daughter of David, brother of William the Lion. The matter was given to Edward for decision, and in 1292 he decided in favor of Baliol, who in return did homage to Edward as overlord. Peace followed until Edward exacted the right of appeal from the Scotch court to his own, but the opposition of the people forced Baliol to resist this. Edward next ordered the Scotch to join him in a war against France, and their refusal ended in war with Scotland. An advance was made upon Berwick, the inhabitants massacred and the town destroyed. No further resistance was offered. Bruce joined the English and Baliol was taken prisoner. Scotland was held as forfeited to England, and Warenne, Earl of Surrey, placed at the head of a council of regency.

Before long the people rose in anger at the submission of their chiefs. William Wallace armed the peasants and occupied the valley near Stirling—the pass between north and south. Here in September, 1297, the English army under Warenne was nearly cut to pieces, and the remnant compelled to retreat. Wallace then reduced Stirling Castle, and this called Edward to Scotland. Being surprised at Falkirk, July, 1298, Wallace was disastrously defeated, and barely escaped with a handful of followers. But the cause of freedom was unconquered. A regency was formed by Bruce and Comyn, who continued the struggle. The menacing attitude of France prevented any action on the part of Edward until that country became embroiled in a quarrel with the pope. Then Comyn acknowledged him

as his chief, and with the surrender of Stirling the conquest was considered complete (1305). A general pardon was granted to all except Wallace, who was executed at Smithfield.

While Edward was preparing for a joint assembly of the two nations at Carlisle, Robert Bruce, a grandson of the original claimant for the throne, again armed the people. He had fled from the English court on the discovery of a plot between him and the Bishop of St. Andrews. The murder of Comyn, whom Bruce accused of betraying him to Edward, left him no alternative but to assume the crown of Scotland. Aymer de Valence routed Bruce's army; and the king himself started northward with an army, but died before he reached Scotland.

Edward II., 1307-1327.—This prince, from whom so much had been expected as his father's son, was a disappointment to his people. He proved weak and inefficient in an invasion of Scotland on his father's death, and retrogressive in his policy against the barons. He allowed himself, too, to be governed by favorites, notably by one Piers Gaveston, who had been placed in his service before his father's death, and whom he elevated to the Earldom of Cornwall, and to the head of the administration. This man was left in charge of the kingdom during the king's absence in France to do homage for Guenne, and to marry Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fair. So insolent was he that after a few months the king was forced to yield to the demands of the barons and dismiss him from the kingdom. He was made lieutenant of Ireland, and before long was recalled to England by the king, much to the anger of the barons, and especially of the Earl of Lancaster, the king's cousin, whose birth and power rendered his influence great among the nobles. By the

Parliament of 1311, Gaveston was again banished, and further power secured by the barons. Edward, however, withdrew to York, recalled Gaveston, declared his banishment illegal and restored his powers. But the barons struck a decisive blow. Lancaster led an army against York, and Gaveston took refuge at Scarborough, where he was besieged and forced to surrender. He was shortly afterward beheaded.

After two years of distress caused by the dissensions between king and barons, a common danger drew the kingdom together. The Scotch, taking advantage of the weakness of the English king, declared Robert Bruce king. The investment of Stirling, called Edward to Scotland with a large army. This force Bruce met on June 24, 1314, at Bannockburn, near Stirling. A disastrous defeat to the English followed, and Bruce was left master of Scotland.

Hugh le Despenser succeeded Gaveston as favorite with the king—a man of better character than Gaveston, yet his rapid promotion roused great jealousy against him. In 1321 Lancaster and the barons forced him and his father into exile. In the next year he was recalled, and when Lancaster strove to again drive him from the country, Edward took up arms. Lancaster declared an alliance with the Scots, and fled north, where he was captured, taken before the king, tried and executed. Another campaign against Scotland resulted in failure, and the king in 1323 was compelled to make a truce for thirteen years, and grant Bruce a royal title.

All through the difficulties with Scotland, England had been harassed by the interference of France. Now war seemed inevitable because of trouble concerning the king's possessions in that country. To avert the war Isabella crossed the sea to bring about a treaty, and Prince Edward

joined her there shortly to do homage for his father's dominions. The queen found in France a number of nobles who had fled thither on the death of Lancaster. A common hatred of the Despensers united them. At last the queen refused to allow her son to return to England until the favorites were dismissed. The prince was affianced to Philippa, daughter of the Count of Hainault, and troops were procured, with whom Isabella in 1326 landed in Suffolk. Here she was joined by some English nobles. The king and his favorites were pursued and captured, the king imprisoned at Kenilworth, and the Despensers put to death. The queen summoned a Parliament, which deposed the king on the ground of inefficiency, and placed Prince Edward on the throne. The king's assent to this was extorted from him, and he was soon afterward murdered at Berkeley Castle.

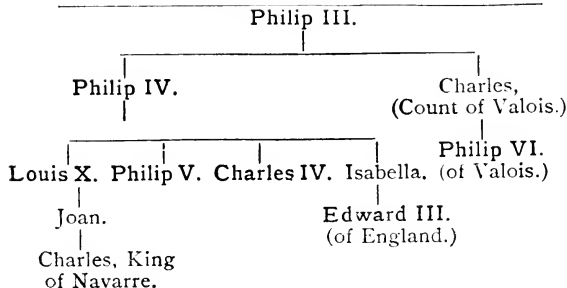
Edward III., 1327-1377.—The young king was but fourteen years old, and although Parliament appointed a council of regency, with the Earl of Lancaster as guardian, the queen, Isabella, and her favorite, Mortimer, had great power over the king, and tried to prevent the other nobles from sharing the government. At last Edward, young as he was, saw with displeasure the growing power of Mortimer, and caused him to be arrested and put to death as a traitor.

Almost immediately after Edward's accession, the Scotch under Douglas invaded England and forced a peace between the countries, which acknowledged the independence of Scotland and Bruce as its king. This peace was most distasteful to the English. All its terms, however, were not carried out, and some of the discontented English took advantage of this fact to foment new troubles in Scotland. Robert Bruce's death

having left the Scottish kingdom to a child eight years old, Edward Baliol, who had been aiming at the throne for several years, landed in Scotland in 1332, and was crowned at Scone, young Bruce fleeing to France. Edward had not openly assisted Baliol, but now he demanded his acknowledgment of English over-lordship. But Baliol was driven from Scotland by the adherents of Bruce. In March, 1333, Edward besieged Berwick, and soon afterward fought at Halidon Hill a battle with the regent Douglas, in which the latter was defeated. This was followed by the submission of a large part of the nobles and by the return of Baliol. For three years Baliol remained England's vassal king, and at the end of that time France took up the cause of David Bruce, and war was declared between France and England. In 1339 Baliol retired to Edward's court, and in 1342 David returned to his kingdom.

We must now look for the cause of the war with France. When Charles IV. died in 1328, a dispute arose as to the successor to the throne. Neither he nor his brother had any sons, but Isabella, the mother of Edward, was Charles's sister; therefore Edward claimed the crown.*

* Claim of Edward III. to the French Throne.



Although there was a French law, known as the Salic law, forbidding the occupation of the throne by a woman, Edward insisted a woman might transmit the right. The crown, however, passed to Charles's cousin, Philip VI. But Edward, roused by some action in regard to Guienne, and also by France's interference in Scotch matters, made preparation for war in 1337, assumed the title of King of France, and crossed to Flanders, with which state, as with other continental powers, an alliance was formed, and from that point he made a fruitless invasion in 1339. In 1340 France fitted out a fleet of four hundred vessels, and stationed it off Sluys in the expectation of another English expedition. It was not in vain; for two hundred and forty English ships on their way to Flanders fell in with these, and with the help of a Flemish fleet which put out to their assistance, succeeded in destroying the French fleet and killing twenty thousand men. Edward then besieged Tournay, but was obliged to conclude a truce and return to England. Some of his alliances were broken, and his finances were at a low ebb. Large grants were made to him by Parliament, in return for which the king gave his assent to certain statutes which the Commons desired.

In 1341 a dispute between rival claimants to the Duchy of Brittany drew Edward again to France, and when the time of the truce had elapsed the war between the two countries was renewed. Edward's allies, with the exception of the Flemish towns, had deserted him, and he was deeply in debt. Notwithstanding this he sailed from England, in 1346, with the intention of landing at Guienne to relieve Henry of Lancaster, who was hard pressed at Aiguillon by John, Duke of Normandy, Philip's son. Contrary winds drove Edward to Normandy. Disembarking at La

Hogue he found Normandy defenceless, and by threatening Rouen and Paris, forced Philip to summon his son to the north. Edward now retreated toward Flanders, followed by Philip with reinforcements brought by King John of Bohemia. Edward took a position at Crecy to await the enemy, and here was fought a desperate battle, in which the English were victorious. The young Prince of Wales distinguished himself in this battle, and was afterward called the Black Prince from the color of the armor worn by him on that day. Artillery was used for the first time in this battle. Edward next pressed to the siege of Calais. This occupied nearly a year, and in the meantime success was attending the English arms in other quarters.

In Guienne, Henry of Lancaster, relieved of the French army, recovered Poitou. A Scotch invasion into England was checked at Neville's Cross by Earl Percy, and the Scotch king captured. In 1347 Calais was compelled, by famine, to surrender unconditionally. This was a valuable victory to the English, as the possession of Dover on one side and Calais on the other would give the English control of the Channel.

These great successes were followed by a series of disasters in England. A deadly plague, which had spread over Europe, reached England in 1348, and more than fifty thousand people are supposed to have been its victims. This was followed by a famine, and by social disturbances among the laboring classes.

In 1355 the truce between the hostile nations terminated, and at the solicitation of the friends of the King of Navarre, who had been imprisoned by John, Philip's successor, Edward ordered two expeditions to France. In the following year the expedition under the Black Prince penetrated into Guienne, where, near Poitiers, he was met

on September 19, 1356, by a large army under the French king. Edward's retreat was cut off, and the army far inferior in numbers to the French ; but a day which John spent in negotiation, Edward spent in intrenching himself in a skilfully chosen position. The battle resulted in the utter rout of the French, and the capture of King John. Unable to make use of his advantage, the Black Prince concluded a truce for two years, and the royal captive was conducted to England, where he was treated with considerate attention. A proposed treaty of peace was rejected by the dauphin, and its rejection was followed by a fresh invasion by Edward. In 1360 the peace of Bretigny was arranged, by which John's release was purchased by a promise of a large ransom. Edward agreed to renounce Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine, receiving in return Poitou, Saintonge, Limousin, and other districts in that part of France, together with Calais, Guisnes, and Ponthieu in the north—all to be held without homage to France. Edward was to give up his Flemish alliance, and John promised to refrain from interference with the Scotch.

In 1367, the Black Prince led an expedition into Spain, to restore to the throne Pedro, whom his brother Henry, with the aid of the French, had dethroned. Pedro was restored, but proved so cruel to his subjects that a second attempt by Henry ended in Pedro's death. The Duke of Lancaster now claimed the throne, through his marriage with Pedro's daughter, and this provoked the enmity of the King of Spain.

So heavily were Edward's French subjects taxed to pay the expenses of this Spanish expedition that some of them rose in rebellion, and asked aid of the French king, Charles, against their lord. Enraged at Charles's action

in this matter, the Black Prince went, in 1369, into his southern provinces, but was unable to hold his own. His health having failed, he returned to England, and after losing all his possessions, except Bordeaux, Bayonne and Calais, was forced to make peace. The prince died in 1376, and his father's death followed in the next year.

The reigns of the Edwards exhibit marked progress in legislation, in that representatives of the cities and boroughs were permanently returned to Parliament, which was now divided into two houses. The Commons obtained the right to petition for redress of grievances, and in the reign of Edward III. acquired the right of inquiry into abuses, and a control over the raising of money. Notwithstanding this, several statutes were passed which pressed heavily upon the laboring classes, and tax after tax was imposed to meet the expenses of a war which was fatal to England's foreign power. The reign of Edward III. is also marked by the introduction of gunpowder, the establishment and protection of companies of Flemish weavers, the substitution of English for French as the language of the courts of law, the institution of the Order of the Garter, and by the life and work of Geoffrey Chaucer, the first great English poet, and of Wyclif, the great reformer. The latter organized a band of preachers who carried his doctrines abroad. He also gave us the first English translation of the Bible.

Richard II., 1377-1399.—The young prince who succeeded Edward III. was the son of the Black Prince. As in the latter days of Edward, the chief power was held by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, under whom several fruitless expeditions were carried into France. The cost of these and the expenses of the government

led Parliament to impose a poll tax on individuals of all classes. This roused the already discontented peasants to revolt. Essex set the example, and ere long several counties followed her example. Under the leadership of Wat Tyler and John Hales, a hundred thousand men were assembled at Blackheath, near London, on June 12, 1381, and some of them entering the city the next day, fired several buildings. On the morning of the 14th, the young king went out to meet the Essex men. Their demands were listened to, as they asked for freedom from serfdom, and for the removal of imposts from trade. Satisfied by the king's concessions, they went peacefully to their homes. On the morning of the 15th, the king met with Wat Tyler at the head of the Kentish insurgents. Some of Tyler's words angered Walworth, Mayor of London, and he struck him down with his sword. Upon their leader's death the crowd cried out for revenge, but Richard, with great presence of mind, offered himself as their leader and withdrew them from the city. Promising these rebels the same privileges that he had granted the others, he dismissed them to their homes. Before long, the nobles, hearing of the king's danger, hastened to London, and Richard stood at the head of a large army which compelled submission. Parliament revoked Richard's concessions and reduced the people to their old condition; but they never forgot the fact that they had forced the king to yield to their demands.

Richard was very anxious to curb the power both of the nobles and of Parliament, and especially did he resent the supervision of the Commons over the royal expenditure. His favorite, Robert de Vere, and his chancellor, the Earl of Suffolk, encouraged these ideas, and his

attitude toward Parliament alienated it from him. As he and his councillors had for some time desired to get rid of the Duke of Lancaster, a charge of treason was concocted, and the duke compelled to flee to Spain. But this only brought to the front another uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, and Henry of Derby, the son of the Duke of Lancaster by his first marriage, and increased the opposition already existing against his councillors. In 1386 Parliament asked for the removal of Suffolk, but the king would not assent until threatened with deposition. They further refused all subsidies until he consented to the formation of a council with the Duke of Gloucester at its head. Two years afterward Suffolk, de Vere and others were charged with high treason, and those who did not succeed in escaping were executed.

In 1389 Richard declared that, being of age, further guardianship was unnecessary. He removed Gloucester for a time, and showed great wisdom in his changes, even giving places in his council to those who had opposed his favorites. His foreign policy throughout his reign was one of peace, for the reason that he desired to be as little dependent upon Parliament as possible, and it was only through that body that means to carry on war could be obtained. A formal peace with France was impossible without giving up his claim upon the crown; so, in 1396, he secured a truce of twenty-eight years by a marriage with the young daughter of Charles VI. Immediately Richard's government was changed, and he gave himself up to extravagant pleasures, until the Commons begged him to desist. Suddenly the Duke of Gloucester and the Earls of Arundel and Warwick were accused of a conspiracy. Arundel was executed, Warwick banished, and Gloucester imprisoned at Calais,

where, before long, he died under suspicious circumstances.

On the death of John of Gaunt in 1399, his son, who had been banished by Richard, yielded to the persuasions of some of his friends, and sailed for England to claim his confiscated estates. Landing in Yorkshire, he was joined by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, and thousands of malcontents. Richard was at this time absent in Ireland; but the Duke of York raised an army to protect the throne. The greater part of it, however, deserted and joined Lancaster, who was master of the realm. As soon as he heard of the disaster, Richard hastened from Ireland, but only to be taken prisoner by his subjects. Lancaster now determined upon seizing the crown. Through his influence, Parliament deposed the king, and Henry of Lancaster set forth his claim to the throne. No objection was raised, and he became king by the suffrage of the people. Richard was imprisoned in Pomfret, where he was murdered in March, 1400.

CHAPTER IV.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Scotland.</i>
Henry IV.	Charles VI.	Robert III.
Henry V.	Charles VII.	James I.
Henry VI.		
Edward IV.	Louis XI.	James II.
Edward V.	Charles VIII.	James III.
Richard III.		

THE PLANTAGENET KINGS (*continued*).—THE
HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

Henry IV., 1399-1413.—The influence of the Church had been given to Henry upon the supposition that he would not encourage the new heresy taught by Wyclif, and maintained by his followers, now called Lollards; accordingly one of the first acts of his reign was his consent to a statute of Parliament which punished heresy by death. The statute did not crush Lollardism, for although one of its leaders, the Earl of Salisbury, died early in the reign, his place was immediately filled by John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, an able soldier who stood out boldly for his cause. Charges were brought against him, which, at last, not even the personal friendship of the king could resist. He escaped trial, however, and organized revolt after revolt. At length he was captured and burned, but not until his violence had brought odium upon his sect and broken its power.

The revolution which placed Henry upon the throne was almost bloodless, and he showed leniency in the punishment of those who had opposed him. But when a conspiracy against his life was discovered the leaders were promptly beheaded.

In the first year of his reign, Henry was called from a campaign against the Scots by a revolt in Wales under Owen Glendower, who, assuming the title of Prince of Wales, seized several strongholds in North Wales, and baffled the English who were sent against him. In the battle of Brynglas he captured Edward Mortimer, uncle of the imprisoned Earl of March, the next heir to the throne. Henry's refusal to ransom this

noble roused the anger of the Percies of Northumberland, who sought the aid of Glendower in a conspiracy to place the Earl of March upon the throne. The king raising a large army, met the Percies at Shrewsbury July 23, 1403, and a fierce battle ensued, in which Henry Percy, called Hotspur, was killed, and the other leaders captured. But the difficulty with Glendower remained unsettled until the beginning of the next reign.

In 1407 an accident removed all present dangers of hostility from Scotland. James, the son of the Scotch king, was shipwrecked while on his way to France, and thrown upon the English coast. Henry kept him a prisoner in England, yet gave him every advantage of education. King Robert died of grief at the news of his son's capture, and the Scotch crown passed to the Duke of Albany, the king's brother.

Before Henry's death his health became so much impaired that a council of government was formed, with Henry, Prince of Wales, at its head. But as Henry suspected his son of plotting for his removal, he was deprived of all power until the death of his father in 1413.

Henry V., 1413-1422.—It was only the disturbed internal condition of the two countries which prevented serious outbreak between France and England during the reign of Henry IV. The madness of the French king left much power in the hands of the Duke of Burgundy, who was anxious for peace with England, while a large party under the leadership of the Duke of Orleans were anxious for war. As disturbances between these two parties were constantly arising, Henry V. soon saw an opportunity to strike a blow for the possession of the country. Renewing the claim of Edward III., he sailed in 1415 for Harfleur. This town he reduced by a

siege, and then, although his ranks were thinned by sickness, determined to attempt Calais. When he had crossed the Somme, he found sixty thousand French encamped at Agincourt. There was no alternative but battle or surrender. Henry chose the former. His own valor raised the courage of his small army, and the French, who, on October 24, expected a victory almost without effort, found themselves on the 25th defeated, with the loss of many thousands. Unable to take any advantage of his success, Henry returned to England and remained for two years, during which time France was distracted with civil war between the two factions. In 1417 Henry set out with the intention of conquering Normandy. The lower part easily submitted, but Rouen held out firmly until overcome by famine. The assassination of the Duke of Burgundy made his son a partisan of England, and through his influence with the French king, a treaty was drawn up in 1420 at Troyes, by the terms of which Henry of England should marry the Princess Catharine, and succeed to the French crown, to the exclusion of the dauphin, who, throughout the civil troubles, had been a partisan of Orleans. In 1421 Henry was called back to the field by a defeat of his brother Clarence at Baugé, and he won several successes; but when at the height of his glory he died. His death was followed shortly by that of Charles.

Henry VI., 1422-1461.—The heir to the crown being a babe of nine months at his father's death, in accordance with the will of the late king, his brother, the Duke of Bedford, became regent of France, and the Duke of Gloucester regent of England. Under Bedford's able guidance the French war went on with continued success, until in his march southward he appeared before the city of Orleans. The French were so de-

moralized by their disasters, that a large army shut itself up inside the city and submitted to a siege.

In the hour of their extremity help came to them from an unlooked-for source. Joan of Arc, a peasant girl of Vaucouleurs, appeared before the dauphin in his helplessness at Chinon, and assured him that she had been sent by heaven to save France and crown him king. Yielding to her entreaties, the king gave her a large force, with which she raised the siege of Orleans and drove off the English. This done, she accompanied the dauphin to Rheims, where he was crowned. Her work being accomplished, Joan begged to be allowed to return to her simple home—a course of action which the French, who desired her assistance in winning back the conquered towns of Northern France, would not allow. But after the siege of Compiègne in 1430, Joan fell into the hands of the English, by whom she was tried for heresy, condemned and burned. The English cause in France was lost. Deserted by her ally, the Duke of Burgundy, England was powerless to hold her conquests, and one by one they were wrested from her until nothing remained but Calais.

Great interests had already begun to centre in the Duke of York. This prince was doubly descended from Edward III.; through his mother from the Duke of Clarence, Edward's third son; and through his father from the Duke of York, Edward's fifth son. His birth, his great wealth, and his influence with the powerful Earls of Salisbury and Warwick, made him a possible formidable rival to the lately established Lancastrian house, especially as the king since reaching his majority had developed a very weak character. In the hope of securing the permanence of his throne, the king's chosen advisers, Cardinal Beau-

fort and the Earl of Suffolk, brought about a marriage between him and Margaret, daughter of the Duke of Anjou, and titular King of Sicily and Jerusalem.

The loss of the French possessions, the unpopularity of the king's marriage with a French woman, and the general dislike entertained for Suffolk, who, a favorite with the queen, shared with her the direction of the feeble king, so aroused the people in answer to an appeal from the Commons, that Suffolk was banished, and on his way from the country was murdered. Shortly after this (1450), Jack Cade, assuming the name of Mortimer, roused the people of Kent, Surrey and Sussex to rebellion, marched to London, and with about twenty thousand men, encamped at Blackheath. He sent to the court a list of grievances, and kept his force in good order. But as they, breaking away from his control, began to rob and plunder, they were attacked by an army of soldiers and scattered. Cade himself was killed while escaping to Sussex.

The birth of Prince Edward in 1454 gave a Lancastrian heir to the throne; but the subsequent madness of the king necessitated the appointment of a regent. Unable to resist his power, the queen and council consented that York should become Protector. In the next year the king recovered sufficiently to remove York and put Somerset in his place, whereupon York raised an army (though only in opposition to the minister), and a battle was fought at St. Albans, May 23, 1455, which he gained,—the king himself becoming a prisoner. For a few years there was a semblance of peace, but even the semblance did not last long. In 1460 the Earl of Warwick defeated and captured the king at Northampton. York now claimed the throne, and it was decided that he should be acknowl-

edged Henry's heir. Margaret, indignant that her son's claims should be set aside, raised an army of twenty thousand men in the north, to meet which the Duke of York set out with five thousand. A battle was fought at Wakefield, where Margaret won a complete victory and York was slain, as was also his young son, the Earl of Rutland. .

His death was soon avenged, for his son Edward, who succeeded to the title, hastened from Wales, where he was raising an army, and moved toward London, defeating part of the Lancastrian force at Mortimer's Cross. Margaret, too, had started for London, and had defeated Warwick at St. Albans, but on March 29, 1461, Margaret and Edward met on Towton Field, and a most desperate battle ensued, in which the Yorkists were the victors. The king and his family fled to Scotland.

Edward IV., 1461-1483.—For three years after Edward's accession the control of the kingdom lay in the hands of the Earl of Warwick and his brother, all of whom had been chosen advisors of the Duke of York. Two risings of the Lancastrians were put down by the efforts of these nobles, and in the last Henry had been betrayed and taken to London. Warwick desiring an alliance with France, planned a marriage between Edward and a French princess; but Edward was already jealous of Warwick's influence, and as the capture of the late king seemed to have ended the strife between the parties, he determined to show his opposition to that powerful noble. Accordingly, he chose a wife for himself, and married Elizabeth Woodville, the daughter of a Lancastrian. He raised his wife's kinsmen to honorable offices, and checked Warwick in many ways. At last Warwick, perceiving that his power was broken, and perceiving, too, that

many other nobles were growing estranged from the king, organized a revolt, in which he was joined by the king's brother, the Duke of Clarence.

Notwithstanding Warwick's former hatred of the Lancastrian king, he promised to attempt his restoration. Thousands flocked to his standard, and a force under the queen's father was defeated and its leader killed. After a brief reconciliation with Edward, brought about through a disagreement between factions of the revolting party, another rising took place, which forced Edward to flee to Holland. Henry was restored in 1471, but being unable to assume control of affairs, a regency was formed under Warwick and Clarence. Thus Warwick overthrew the government in favor of the man whom, a few years before, he had helped to the throne. This making and unmaking of kings obtained for him the title of "King-maker."

But the Duke of Burgundy, who could not bear to see a French woman on the throne of England, listened to Edward's appeal for aid. With a small force Edward landed at Ravenspur in March, 1471, and was joined by numbers of his followers. Warwick raised a force, and the two armies met at Barnet, near London. Clarence deserted Warwick, and under a thick veil of mist was fought a battle, in which Warwick was slain and the power of his house broken. On the same day, Queen Margaret arrived from France with a small army. This was overtaken by Edward in May, and defeated. Margaret and her son were taken prisoners, and the latter murdered. The death of Henry, which occurred almost immediately, extinguished the Lancastrian line.

Edward V., 1483.—Edward IV. was planning an invasion of France when he died, leaving two sons, the elder of whom succeeded him. As the Duke of Clarence had died in the Tower, after an impeachment for treason, Richard, Duke of

Gloucester, the nearest male relative of Edward's house, was made Protector by a council of nobles and bishops. To his care the young king was transferred from the hands of his mother and the Woodvilles, three of whom were sent to the block. Richard's ambition was immediately fixed upon the crown. The Duke of Buckingham gave his assistance, and Parliament set aside Edward's heirs and gave the kingdom to Richard.

Richard III., 1483-1485.—Richard was no sooner on the throne than a rival claimant made his appearance. There was living in France Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who, through his mother Margaret, was descended from John of Gaunt. Bishop Morton and the Duke of Buckingham, conspiring for Richard's ruin, formed the plan of marrying the Lancastrian Henry Tudor and Elizabeth, the oldest daughter of Edward IV., thus uniting the claims of the two factions. Both parties acquiesced in the arrangement, and a rising was planned and executed in 1483. It was unsuccessful, however, and Buckingham was beheaded, while the other conspirators were scattered.

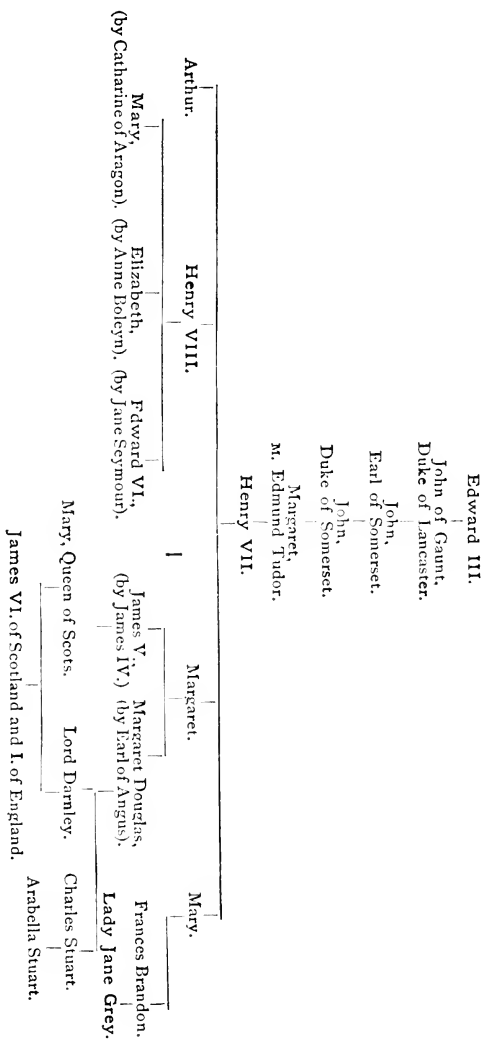
Richard now strove to make himself popular by repealing certain obnoxious laws, and passing others which he thought would please the people. But the rumor was rapidly gaining ground through the country that he had caused the young princes to be murdered; and when in August, 1485, Henry Tudor landed at Milford Haven, it was soon evident that a wide-spread conspiracy was afoot. Raising a large army, Richard set out against the intruder, and met him at Bosworth, near Leicester. The desertion of several detachments of troops made Richard's case a desperate one. Fighting furiously he forced his way to Henry himself, when, overpowered by numbers, he fell. With him ended the reign of the Plantagenets.

CHAPTER V.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Scotland.</i>	<i>Germany.</i>	<i>Spain.</i>
Henry VII.	Charles VIII. Louis XII.	James III. James IV.	Frederick III. Maximilian I.	Catharine (Navarre). Ferdinand V. (Castile). Ferdinand II. (Aragon).
Henry VIII.	Francis I. Henry II.	James V. Mary.	Charles V.	Charles I.
Edward VI. Mary. Elizabeth.	Francis II. Charles IX. Henry III. Henry IV.	James VI.	Ferdinand I. Maximilian II. Rudolph II.	Philip II. Philip III.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF TUDOR KINGS.



THE TUDOR KINGS.

Henry VII., 1485-1509.—Though Henry kept his promise and married Elizabeth of York, yet the fact that he did not do so until after he was acknowledged king angered the Yorkist nobles. Several insurrections took place in his reign. In 1487 Lambert Simnel assumed the title of Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, and being supported by the Earl of Lincoln and other nobles, aroused much sympathy. But Henry defeated the army of insurgents, took Simnel prisoner, and afterward gave him a place as scullion in the royal kitchen.

Henry next set about getting together such a treasure as would render the crown independent of Parliament. He evaded wars and kept the money raised to carry them on. He revived benevolences, strove to lessen the power of the nobles by restricting the number of their followers, and exacted heavy fines from those who evaded his demands; instituted the court of Star Chamber, in which he meted out justice without allowing a trial by jury.

Although Henry's policy was strongly that of peace, an avowed determination on the part of Charles VIII. of France to annex Brittany to his kingdom, roused the English king to a declaration of war. Henry was helpless, however, when by the marriage of the French king with the heiress of the duchy, it became a province of France, and he was obliged to be content with the payment of a large sum of money to him.

Henry had need of peace, for in 1492 a new pretender claimed his throne. A youth named Perkin Warbeck, claiming to be Richard, Duke

of York, son of Edward IV., gained a recognition of his claims from Austria and Scotland, and landed in England, in 1495, with a large army. His troops were seized on landing and he fled to Ireland and afterward to Scotland, from which point he made, with the assistance of James IV., an unsuccessful inroad into England. Leaving Scotland soon after, he attempted an attack upon London, but was driven to surrender, and after a brief imprisonment was executed. The young Earl of Warwick was accused of complicity with him and was beheaded.

In order to win over Scotland, which up to this time had been a very uncertain neighbor, always joining or being joined by France on the first outbreak of trouble, Henry offered to James IV. his sister Margaret in marriage. A common fear of the power of the French king also drew England and Spain together, and when, by the accession of Philip of Austria to the Low Countries, another check to France was offered, and Spain strengthened, Henry yielded to the wishes of Ferdinand of Spain, and consented to the marriage of his son Arthur with Catharine of Aragon.

Henry VIII., 1509-1547.—Henry's accession was hailed with joy by his subjects, for his personal characteristics had rendered him popular. Almost immediately he married Catharine of Aragon, to whom he had been betrothed on his brother's death. The first few years of this reign were years of peace, which greatly favored the progress of the new learning, but war was rife upon the Continent, and Henry's ambition soon prompted him not only to join the conflict, but to strive for ascendancy over England's old enemy, France. He accordingly joined an alliance with Spain and the pope against France, and upon the declaration of war, conducted an army

into that country. The campaign was a failure, however, through the treachery of Ferdinand, who used Henry for his own advantage. Henry was determined upon carrying out his designs, and in 1513 the war broke out afresh. Landing at Calais, the king advanced against the French, and an action took place at Guinegate, which can not be called a battle, as the French fled at the sight of the enemy.

Henry found on his return home soon afterward that during his absence James IV. of Scotland had led a large army into England, and was ravaging Northumberland when he was opposed by the Earl of Surrey. At Flodden a fierce battle was fought, in which the loss on both sides was immense, but the Scots had lost their king. Peace was arranged between Henry and his sister Margaret, who was appointed regent during the minority of her son, and the troubles in the north seemed at an end. But only for a time; for Margaret's marriage with the Earl of Douglas stirred up strife again among the nobles. To meet this difficulty, and because he found that his allies had forsaken him for France, Henry also arranged an alliance with that country and gave his sister Mary in marriage to the king. Within a few months Louis died and was succeeded by the Duke of Angoulême, who became Francis I.

Henry's chief counsellor at this time was Thomas Wolsey, a man who had risen by his abilities from a humble position in life. He had been employed on important occasions by Henry VII., and upon the death of that king was admitted to the council of his son. His unquestioned power soon raised him from one position to another, through bishoprics to the cardinalate, and at last to the position of chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury. Later he received

from the pope the office of legate, together with unusual control over the religious houses in England. Throughout all Europe his power and influence were recognized, and many negotiations with foreign courts were carried on through him.

By the death of Maximilian the empire was left without a head, and the crown being elective, Francis of France, and Charles V. of Spain, presented themselves as candidates for it. Charles was successful, and thus held under his dominion, Spain, Austria and the Netherlands. Between Francis and Charles there now existed a keen rivalry, and each sought to strengthen himself still further by an alliance with Henry. Charles even went so far as to visit England in person, and succeeded in winning over Wolsey by the promise of aid if he sought the papacy. Notwithstanding a most friendly meeting between Henry and Francis, Henry's sympathies seemed to lie with the emperor, for shortly after the opening of hostilities between France and the Empire, Henry concluded a treaty with Charles by which he promised to give his daughter Mary in marriage to that monarch and to carry an invasion into France. Little or nothing was accomplished, however, by the English, and mainly because Parliament would not grant the immense sums that were asked for expenses. In consequence of this, Henry did not summon a Parliament for seven years, and raised what money he got by direct tax and by benevolences. The war dragged on, with many negotiations and little action, until 1525, when the imperial troops laid siege to Marseilles. Francis went to the relief of the city, and a battle was fought at Pavia, in which not only were the French defeated, but their king was taken prisoner. Henry saw in this an

opportunity to gain the coveted crown of France, and urged Charles to aid him ; but upon Charles's refusal he concluded a treaty with the queen regent of France. This step met with the approval of Wolsey, as Charles had failed to keep his promises relative to the papacy, although the opportunity had twice been offered. Peace was made between the warring parties in 1526, and Francis was released ; but at the end of a year, the Imperialists attacked and sacked Rome and took the pope prisoner. Henry and Francis, aroused by this, made a fresh treaty, and vowed to drive the imperial party from Italy.

For some time Henry had been discontented about his marriage with his brother's widow. Of many children that had been born to them, but one survived, and that was a daughter. Henry chose now to think that he had done wrong—a feeling which Wolsey fostered in his desire to wed the king to a French princess—and applied to the pope for advice. The pope wanted time for deliberation ; for if he decided in favor of Henry, he would incur the enmity of the powerful emperor, who was nephew to the queen, and he was equally anxious to retain the friendship of Henry. He accordingly proposed that the question of the legality of the marriage should be settled by a court held by Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio. But the proceedings failed to reach a result, although Wolsey took an active interest in the matter, and made earnest efforts to bring the pope to a decision, or to grant permission to have the case tried in England. At the same time Henry was trying to induce the pope to grant him a divorce from Catharine, as he was desirous of marrying Anne Boleyn. The pope at last consented to having the case tried in England, but things dragged until Henry grew impatient. The delay was danger-

ous to Wolsey. Always an object of jealous dislike on the part of the nobles, his enemies had increased, including now the men of the new learning, the clergy, the Protestants whom he had begun to persecute, and the Boleyns, now powerful in the state, until at last the king threw upon him the responsibility for all the delays and opposition, and bereft him of his dignities and power. One by one his friends dropped from him—one only, Thomas Cromwell, remaining faithful to the end, and he succeeded him as the king's favorite and counsellor.

Meantime, Thomas Cranmer had suggested to Henry that an easy way out of his difficulty was to give the question of divorce to the universities of Europe for decision. This was done, and several of them decided in Henry's favor. Still he was not quite satisfied. Acting under the advice of Cromwell, Henry summoned a convocation of the clergy in 1531, and announced that he should thereafter be the Head of the Church in England. Next, Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, declared the marriage with Catharine illegal, and confirmed the marriage with Anne Boleyn, which had some time since been effected secretly—a proceeding which the pope immediately denounced, and threatened the king with excommunication. Henry now determined to throw off all submission to Rome, and Parliament in 1534 passed a statute which severed all connection with the pope as head of the Church, and vested ecclesiastical matters in the king. All who refused to swear fealty to the act were held guilty of treason, and among those who suffered the death penalty were Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More.

Cromwell now used his power as vicar-general under the king, to institute an inquiry into the religious and moral condition of the monasteries,

and this resulted in the abolition of about four hundred houses, whose revenues reverted to the crown. Restrictions in regard to preaching were put upon the clergy ; a system of espionage was created, which brought everything to the notice of Cromwell, and charges of treason were based upon the most trivial occurrences. Hated as Wolsey had been, the hatred against Cromwell was greater. This feeling showed itself strongly in the north, where the monasteries were popular, by insurrections that broke out in Lincolnshire and Yorkshire.

The year 1536 saw the Bible in the English tongue, known as Miles Coverdale's Bible. It also saw the execution of Anne Boleyn, and the marriage of the king with Jane Seymour.

From the time of Henry VII. Ireland had been governed by the powerful family of Geraldines, who were nominally the agents of the English king. Such was their misrule, however, that Henry VIII. determined upon a reform in that quarter, and in 1535 sent over a new lieutenant to effect it. So thorough were the measures taken that within seven years English authority was established throughout the island, the various chieftains were won over, and English law prevailed.

Encouraged by his former success, Henry continued to abolish the religious houses, and so effective was his work that altogether there were over six hundred monasteries suppressed, besides numbers of smaller houses. This of course aroused great indignation at Rome, and in 1538 a bull of excommunication was issued against the king. Neither Henry nor Cromwell had any sympathy with the Protestants. Their wish had been simply for reform of abuses. Moreover, Henry had politically been driven to make alliances with the Protestant German princes, and

he saw that the only consistent position to take was to assume supremacy in his own realm. But a part of his people were not satisfied to stop here. Their zeal for reform carried them on till in several parts of England the mass was ridiculed, images of the saints destroyed, shrines desecrated, and other sacrilegious acts committed. At last this conduct fired the indignation of the king, and the Parliament of 1539 passed the Statute of the Six Articles, in which Henry demanded that his people should accept some of the principles of the Roman Catholic Church. A denial of the articles was to be punished by burning or other severe penalties. In vain Cranmer and other Protestant sympathizers strove against the law; numbers of the Protestants were imprisoned, and Cranmer himself was only saved by the personal interference of the king.

The death of Jane Seymour, shortly after the birth of Prince Edward, led Henry to look for another wife, and Cromwell, whose policy it was to bind England to Protestant Germany, induced him to marry Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. This marriage proved most distasteful to Henry, and all the blame of it fell upon Cromwell. Seeing that the minister's influence over the king was at an end, the nobles who hated him as an upstart, and because his measures had been favorable to the Protestants, turned the weight of their influence against him, and he was executed on the charge of treason. The divorce of Anne, and Henry's marriage with Catharine Howard, the niece of the Duke of Norfolk, who had risen to power after the fall of Cromwell, were followed but too soon by her trial and execution. In the next year he married Catharine Parr, who survived him.

In spite of Henry's offers of friendship, James

V. of Scotland, whose alliance with France had been strengthened by two marriages with French princesses, had from the beginning of his reign been hostile to England, and many depredations were committed across the English border. Several times it had been necessary to send troops into Scotland, and in 1542 the Duke of Norfolk led an army northward, but did not succeed in forcing a battle, and withdrew after laying waste the border. James sent an army to avenge this, but it was without regular organization, and fled in a panic at the sight of a small body of English. Thousands were taken prisoners, and the disaster caused the king's death in a few days. As his death left the kingdom to an infant daughter, Henry at once conceived the idea of marrying her to his son. A treaty was proposed, but its conditions were not acceptable to the Scots, and the matter was dropped.

Henry now formed a league with the emperor for the invasion of France. Great preparations were made, and the country invaded in 1543, but nothing was accomplished. After two years, France prepared to invade England, but this also resulted in nothing, and in 1546 peace was concluded.

During the interval which elapsed between the close of the war and the death of the king in 1547, Henry's attention was given to the regulation of matters of belief in his own realm.

Edward VI., 1547-1553.—According to the provisions of Henry's will, Edward was first heir to the throne. As the young prince was but nine years of age, sixteen executors were appointed to the charge of public affairs. The office of Protector fell naturally to the Earl of Hertford, afterward Duke of Somerset, the uncle of the king.

The first thing done was the establishment of

a more decided Protestantism, as Somerset's sympathies were with the advanced party, and Cranmer was his adviser on this matter. Great changes were made; the Six Articles repealed; an English "communion" service substituted for the mass; the communion ordered to be administered in both kinds; a book of common prayer drawn up and ordered to be used. Naturally these sweeping changes aroused opposition, and one opponent, Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, formidable because powerful, was imprisoned.

As soon as the internal affairs of the realm promised quiet, Somerset turned his attention to the union of the thrones of England and Scotland. A renewal of the border troubles caused him to march northward with eighteen thousand men in the summer of 1547. His approach united the factions of the country in a common cause, and he was met by a large army, which he severely defeated at Pinkie Cleugh. Nothing resulted from the victory except that the Scotch were driven to the necessity of an alliance with France, which resulted in the betrothal of the infant queen Mary to the French prince Francis, and all hope of uniting England and Scotland by means of a marriage between their child sovereigns was at an end.

Somerset returned to England to find that disturbance was rife in several quarters. In Cornwall, Devon and parts of Norfolk the people rebelled against the new religion, and the risings had to be put down by force. His brother, too, Lord Seymour, had been plotting for his own advancement, first by a marriage with the widow of Henry VIII., and, at her death, by an attempt to marry the princess Elizabeth. He was convicted of treason and beheaded in 1549. At the close of this year Somerset found himself so far out of favor with the council, that he was com-

pelled to resign his protectorship, and, although he was afterward readmitted to the council, the chief control of affairs had passed into the hands of his enemy, the Duke of Warwick, and in 1552 he was charged with treason and beheaded.

The council found that they had two difficulties to contend with : first, the necessity of peace with France ; and second, the complete establishment of Protestantism. The first was settled by the surrender of Boulogne, in consideration of the payment of a large sum of money. The second was not so easily disposed of, for though outwardly compliant, there were many in the realm who could not at heart accept the new doctrine. Among these was the princess Mary, for whose compliance both king and council were anxious, but they were obliged to give way or punish her, and that they were loth to do, so they left her undisturbed.

Warwick, now Duke of Northumberland, seeing in the young king's failing health the possibility of adding to his own power, persuaded him to make a will setting aside Mary and Elizabeth, and securing the crown to Lady Jane Grey, a granddaughter of the Duchess of Suffolk, sister to Henry VIII. This lady he married to his own son, Lord Guilford Dudley. The papers necessary to this plan had not long been completed when the king died, July, 1553.

Mary, 1553-1558.—Northumberland hastened to proclaim Jane queen, but the people would not have it so. The eastern counties supported Mary, and the council, seeing the futility of Northumberland's plan, proclaimed her queen, and sent Lady Jane, the unwilling queen of ten days, to the Tower. Thither, too, went Northumberland. Sentence of treason was pronounced upon them, but only upon the latter was it immediately executed.

Mary's determination to restore the Roman Catholic religion showed itself at her accession. Bishops who had been deprived of their sees were reinstated, and those who were champions of the reformed religion were imprisoned. Cranmer was sent to the Tower and convicted of treason. Parliament annulled the divorce which Cranmer had pronounced between Henry VIII. and Catharine, and repealed all the statutes relating to religion which had been enacted during the reign of Edward.

As a step in this same direction, she determined to seek a Catholic husband, and negotiations were entered upon with Philip, son of Charles V. of Spain. In vain Gardiner counselled against the step, and the Commons protested. An insurrection against the Spanish marriage broke out in Kent, and thousands took up arms; but it failed, and its leader was executed. The princess Elizabeth, suspected of sympathy with the rebels, was sent to the Tower, and Lady Jane Grey, together with her husband and father, was beheaded.

In July, 1554, the marriage was effected. The statute against heresy was now passed by Parliament, and the most bitter persecution of the Protestants followed. Nearly three hundred were burned at the stake, many of them for denying the Real Presence, many merely on suspicion. The persecution culminated in the death of Cranmer. He had been imprisoned on Mary's accession, and she, influenced by her personal hatred because of the part he had taken in her mother's divorce, now caused him to be tried for heresy. At first on threat of torture he recanted his opposition to the tenets of Rome, but afterward repented, and gave himself up to death in March, 1556.

Philip had by this time tired of England and

of his wife, and, moreover, affairs on the Continent called for his presence there, so leaving English affairs in the hands of Cardinal Pole, he went over to Flanders. He next urged England to join the war against France. In spite of opposition, Mary levied an army, and sent it under Pembroke to the Low Countries. In the course of the war Calais, the last English possession in France, was seized by the Duke of Guise. This blow, added to her anxiety for the safety of her religion, her consciousness of unpopularity, her jealousy of Elizabeth's succession, and her own ill health, hastened the queen's death, which occurred in November, 1558.

Elizabeth, 1558-1603.—The accession of Elizabeth to the throne was a great joy to the English people, notwithstanding the uncertainty as to her religious principles. But her first act was to put an end to all persecution. She retained many of Mary's council, added to it several Protestants, and showed a strong determination to conform to her father's ideas of reformation rather than to those established in the reign of Edward VI. While the mass was celebrated, she yet allowed some of the prayers to be used in English.

The early part of her reign was troubled with the question of the succession, and Elizabeth several times nearly consented to marry in order that her people might be satisfied. The next heir was Mary of Scotland, daughter of James V. She, by a marriage with Francis, son of Henry II. of France, had united the interests of France and Scotland. She also claimed the right to the throne of England, and on Elizabeth's accession assumed the arms and title of sovereign of England. Elizabeth, knowing that Mary's claim, if pressed, would be supported by France, allied herself with Philip, who was very willing to aid

her, as it was to his interest that France and England should not be united. He even went so far as to propose a marriage with the queen, which, however, she declined. In order to strengthen her position with Scotland, Elizabeth, yielding to the entreaties of the Protestants of that country, who at the death of Henry had taken matters into their own hands, and had ordered the French out of the country, concluded a treaty, and sent a fleet north. The siege of Leith followed, which resulted in the evacuation of the town by the French, and the recognition of Elizabeth's right to her throne.

Mary had no idea of giving up her claim on England, but France was too much occupied with its own troubles to be able to force anything outside; for the Reformation was making alarming progress in that country. The death of Francis II., after a reign of a few months, threw the government of France into the hands of Catharine de Medicis as regent for Charles IX.; and Mary's party being out of power, she resolved to go back to Scotland and govern her kingdom in person. This she did in 1561. Finding that her only hope of gaining power over her people was through the Protestant "congregation," she, although at heart secretly resolved upon the re-establishment of Catholicism, put herself under the guidance of the other party. For a time all went well, but Elizabeth, always distrustful of Mary, was anxious for her marriage with some one who would hold Scotland to the English interest. At length Mary, regardless of Elizabeth's opposition, selected a husband for herself in the person of Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of Lady Margaret Lennox, and next heir after Mary to the English throne.

This was the first of a series of disasters. Darnley was believed to have sympathy with the

Catholics, and this aroused the reformers, and civil war was threatened. Before many months it was evident that Mary hated and despised her husband, and her hatred culminated when, just the moment that she was, through Parliament, about to restore the Catholic religion, he and some of the Protestant lords murdered her favorite counsellor, Rizzio. Mary's plan was now to all appearance set aside, and her policy of toleration drew to her many adherents even among the Protestants. The birth of a son in June, 1566, added to her strength. The goal of her ambition seemed to be reached when, suddenly, both countries were shaken by the tidings of the murder of Darnley. The marriage of Mary three months later with the Earl of Bothwell—the man to whom all evidence pointed as Darnley's murderer—roused the nation against her. Catholic and Protestant alike, filled with horror, cried out against her. In June, 1567, a force which Bothwell had succeeded in raising, advanced against the army under the Scotch lords, but his men refused to fight. Bothwell fled, and Mary was taken into Edinburgh, and shortly afterward, in spite of the remonstrances of Elizabeth, was consigned to a prison in Lochleven Castle. Her abdication of the throne in favor of her son, and the appointment of her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, as regent followed. In 1568 she escaped from prison, but only to find herself at the end of a few days a fugitive. Elizabeth had indignantly protested against her imprisonment, and to her protection Mary therefore gave herself.

Mary's arrival in England was the signal for the outbreak of disturbances. Her cause was identified with the cause of Catholicism in Western Europe. The Duke of Alva was in Flanders for the purpose of rooting Protestant heresy out of

that portion of Philip's realm, and the hope of a Catholic sovereign in England still lived in the hearts of many of its people. A rising in the north was instantly put down, but conspiracy after conspiracy was discovered, and fear of revolt was only dispelled by the death of the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Northumberland, two of the strongest of Mary's adherents. Hope of successful revolt being thus lost, the more ardent Catholics, roused to frenzy by the persecution of the Seminary priests and Jesuits, listened to plans for the assassination of Elizabeth. The discovery of these plots and the proof of Mary's complicity in them, caused her to be brought to trial at Fotheringay Castle, and executed March, 1587.

Fears for the safety of her crown and kingdom had prevented Elizabeth from taking an active part in the struggles on the Continent. Philip of Spain was the most formidable of all the European sovereigns, and his power was now turned upon the extinction of heresy. We have already noted the presence of Alva in Flanders. Although many of the English, with Cecil, Lord Burleigh, Secretary of State, at their head, longed to send aid to their Protestant friends, Elizabeth declined doing so openly, as she feared that in the end Philip must prevail, and feared the effect of such a result upon her own realm. At last, however, under the pressure of popular opinion, she sent troops across the sea, and at the same time strove to effect a peace. But Philip was preparing a fleet for an attack upon England itself. To meet this, the English fleet of fifty small vessels lay waiting in the Channel under the command of Lord Howard, of Effingham, assisted by Drake, Hawkins and Frobisher. In 1588 the Spanish Armada, composed of a hundred and fifty large vessels and manned by splendid seamen, swept

past Plymouth on its way to meet the forces of the Duke of Parma from the north, followed by the English, whose light ships gained steadily upon the heavier ones of the enemy. One by one the Spanish ships were disabled, and yet no general engagement was entered upon. After a week of this desultory work, Lord Howard determined to bring matters to a crisis. Fire ships scattered the Spanish fleet, and the wind drove them out to sea. The English pursued and forced them to seek safety by flight homeward by way of the Orkneys. Storms in the northern seas finished the work. Only one-third of the vessels reached Spain. In 1596, upon news of another invasion, a fleet sailed from Plymouth, and captured Cadiz; and in the following year another fleet was prepared, but did little except capture some booty.

Ireland called for some attention at this time. The Earl of Tyrone fostered means whereby he could give England trouble, and even received help for that purpose from Spain. Several years of partial success against the English commanders gave him boldness and the people courage; and matters seemed threatening. The Earl of Essex was therefore sent over with eighteen thousand men to put an end to the trouble. Instead of which he was so markedly unsuccessful, that he was suspected of treacherously arranging for peace. He returned to England, and Tyrone surrendered later to the English.

Lord Essex's career after his Irish expedition is the last important event of the reign. Finding it impossible to reinstate himself in the queen's favor, he abandoned himself to a reckless scheme to force James VI. of Scotland upon Elizabeth as her successor. The scheme was discovered, Essex confessed his guilt, and was beheaded. The queen's death occurred in 1603.

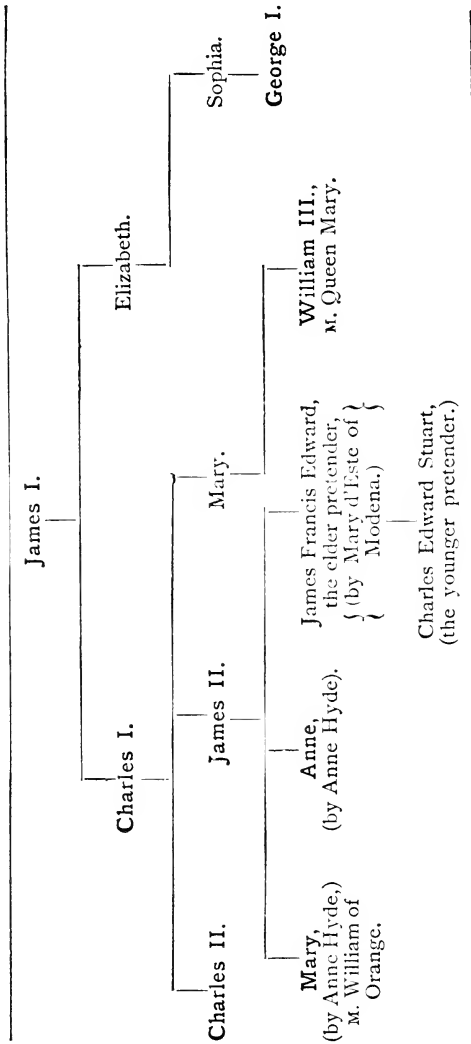
The reign was one of growth and progress. Its action is represented by Raleigh, Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher and others, who undertook many naval enterprises. Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco in a search, though fruitless, after reported riches; and also attempted to found a colony in Virginia. The intellectual growth is seen in the production of Spenser's "Faerie Queen," of many of Shakspeare's plays and poems, of Bacon's essays and theories of philosophy.

CHAPTER VI.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Germany.</i>	<i>Spain.</i>
James I.	Henry IV. Louis XIII.	Rudolph II. Matthias. Ferdinand II.	Philip III. Philip IV.
Charles I.	Louis XIV.	Ferdinand III.	Charles II.
Charles II.		Leopold I.	
James II.			

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF STUART KINGS.



THE STUART KINGS.

James I., 1603-1625.—Notwithstanding the fact that Henry VIII. had bequeathed the crown to the Suffolk branch of his family, the accession of James, the son of Mary of Scotland and Lord Darnley, was on the whole well received by the people.

One of the first acts of his reign was to summon a conference at Hampton Court, when he declared himself in favor of the established Church and of the dependence of Church on State. The severity of his measures against the Catholics, whose hopes had been raised by his accession, not only estranged that part of his subjects, but so roused their resentment that more than one plot was laid for his life. The greatest of these, the Gunpowder Plot, so called from the fact that quantities of that material were found beneath the Parliament House, aimed at the destruction of king and Parliament. The conspirators fled upon the discovery of the plot, but were overtaken and punished.

Almost immediately on James's accession began that long struggle with the Parliament which proved so disastrous to his house. In conformity with his theory that kings were not responsible for their actions to their subjects, he repeatedly strove to increase his power by limiting that of Parliament.

Fortunately the extravagance of his administration threw him into the power of the Commons in the matter of supplies, and two Parliaments, those of 1610 and 1614, were dissolved because they refused to grant supplies until grievances were redressed. The king then tried to raise the needed money by demanding loans.

Yet, although his demands were fruitless, he refused to summon a Parliament until forced to do so in 1621. Meantime he was alienating his people by his declared intention of controlling the administration of justice, by his encouragement of extravagance and profligacy at court, and by the weakness of his government. On the death of Cecil, he allowed the control of affairs to fall into the hands of favorites, one of whom, Villiers, created Duke of Buckingham, was destined to play an important part in this and the following reign and to hasten the fall of the Stuarts.

Bohemia, in order to strengthen herself for her religious struggle with the Emperor Ferdinand II., had chosen for her king Frederick, the elector palatine, son-in-law to James, thus hoping to gain an ally to oppose to the emperor and Philip of Spain. But James was negotiating a marriage between one of the Spanish princesses and his son Charles. In spite of the ardent desire of the people, James refused to aid Bohemia until the defeat of the Protestant army before Prague roused the people to demand a Parliament. Their zeal, however, met with little sympathy from the king, who openly allowed aid to be sent to Spain. The Commons demanded and secured the abolition of monopolies and other abuses; brought about the impeachment of Bacon, Lord Chancellor, on charge of bribery, and were proceeding to the reform of other abuses when Parliament was prorogued. After their reassembly a protestation which the Commons addressed to the king upon his refusing them the right to interfere in regard to the Spanish marriage and the war, clearly stated their belief in their right to discuss all matters connected with the government. This greatly exasperated James, but he could do nothing to

check the growing power of Parliament. With the exception of Buckingham, he was alone in his policy. He was more and more anxious for the marriage and allowed Charles to go in disguise to Spain to press his suit.

In her wish to avoid the marriage, Spain made many demands, all of which were acceded to, but at last negotiations were broken off; the prince returned and a Parliament was summoned to raise means for a war; a treaty was made with Holland, and a marriage arranged with Henrietta Maria of France, daughter of Henry IV. At this point James's death placed Charles upon the throne.

This reign marks the beginning of the colonies in the New World. Raleigh's attempts were followed by the granting of two charters, one to the London, and one to the Plymouth Company, under the former of which a colony was planted at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, which grew steadily and was the source of extensive colonization. Under the Plymouth Company settlements were made along Massachusetts Bay in 1621, and the foundations of New England laid.

Charles I., 1625-1649.—Although the people had desired to put an end to the alliance with Spain, yet when Charles called for means with which to carry on the war, the Commons refused more than a small amount, feeling that in no other way could the absolute power at which Charles aimed be restrained. To supply his needs the king had recourse to borrowing, and in this way a fleet was raised which made a disastrous expedition and accomplished nothing. Buckingham was accredited with having an evil influence over the king, and accordingly the next Parliament voted his impeachment. Charles's anger rose at this, and he committed two offending members to the Tower, but finding that the

Commons would not proceed in their business without them, he ordered their release, but prorogued Parliament. A remonstrance begging Charles to dismiss Buckingham was burned, and the king levied his subsidy in the form of benevolences. But to no purpose. The country refused to give "save by way of Parliament," although severe measures were resorted to. The king and his ministers found means, however, to raise an expedition, which sailed for Rochelle for the purpose of aiding that city against Richelieu. Like the earlier expedition, it was disastrous, but not to the English fleet only, for Rochelle fell, and with it fell the cause of the Huguenots.

Charles was now compelled to summon a Parliament, and its first act was to draw up a Petition of Right, in which all the statutes protecting the people against tyrannous exactions were recited, as well as the instances in which they had been violated. When Charles evaded the Petition the Commons proceeded to prepare a Remonstrance, and to urge Buckingham's removal from the government. To avert this, the king consented to the Petition of Right, to the great joy of the nation, but before many days the obnoxious minister was assassinated. One of his followers was raised to his place, and the same state of affairs remained.

But there was one man in England who was doing all in his power to uphold the royal authority. Thomas Wentworth, afterward Earl of Strafford, who had been a strong advocate of the Petition of Right, had, after the death of Buckingham, been admitted to the Royal Council, and set to work with the whole strength of his genius and will to make the government a despotism. He saw in Ireland a favorable field for his ambition, and laid the foundations of the

tyranny of Cromwell, by pitting Catholic against Protestant, in order to encourage a disunion which would leave both parties dependent on the crown. His desire for bold action was shown in his advice to levy ship-money. John Hampden's resistance to this, on the ground of its illegality, stirred England, and that just at the time when the Scotch were organizing resistance to the ritual of the Church of England, which Laud was trying to enforce. Although the judges decided against Hampden, his trial awakened the people more and more to the evils of arbitrary taxation; and although the king refused to receive the remonstrance of the Scots, the refusal was followed by the signing on their part of a covenant to defend their "religion against all contrary errors and corruptions." In vain Charles threatened them with war. He had no adequate means of raising an army. At last he was obliged to give it up, but not until the Scots had crossed the border and threatened York.

The acknowledged leader of the Parliament that met in 1640 (commonly known as the Long Parliament) was John Pym, who had long seen that a struggle between the people and the crown was inevitable; he was also the first to see clearly that the Parliament was of greater constitutional value than the king, and that Parliament really meant the Commons. Therefore when Charles refused to act with Parliament, Pym interpreted his action as leaving full control in its hands.

During this session Parliament abolished many judicial abuses; declared ship-money illegal, as well as other arbitrary taxation; passed a bill summoning the Houses every three years; imprisoned Laud; passed a Bill of Attainder against Strafford, and called for his execution.

His death put an end to government in Ireland, where a rebellion broke out soon after, in the course of which thousands of English were massacred. It soon became a religious struggle, Catholic against Protestant; and, indeed, the Church question had divided Parliament itself, where, while all were anxious for reform, there was a variety of opinion as to the extent of change necessary. During the proceedings, while both Houses were excited over the bill for the expulsion of the bishops from the Peers, an order came from the king demanding the arrest on charges of treason of five leading members of the Commons. The order was resisted, and both parties prepared for war, Parliament seizing the arsenals and arming the militia.

The Civil War, 1642.—Destitute as the king was, it seemed that a single battle must decide the matter. But instead, the battle at Edgehill left the advantage with the king, and during the four years of war which followed, the Parliamentary armies seemed many times on the point of destruction. The great battles of Marston Moor, Newbury and Naseby told strongly on the side of Parliament. In the meantime the charge of remodelling the army was given to Oliver Cromwell, who had made his reputation at Marston Moor as the leader of one thousand "men of religion." He had seen a practical advantage to be gained from their zeal. With such an army Cromwell met the king's forces near Naseby in June, 1645, and was victorious in the fierce battle which ensued.

In the cessation of open hostilities that followed, a struggle went on between the army and Parliament, which had its basis in the religious differences of the two bodies. The majority of the latter was Presbyterian, while the former was Independent—the Presbyterians believing

in a state religion, the Independents in congregational liberty. The war being apparently over, Parliament called upon the army to disband, which it refused to do unless certain conditions were fulfilled. In order to strengthen themselves, the army, having striven in vain to come to definite arrangements with the king, seized his person and held him their prisoner.

His escape roused the army to action, and although he was soon recaptured, he opened negotiations with his followers, and his promise to establish Presbyterianism caused a rising in his favor in England and also in Scotland. Fairfax subdued the rising in the east, and Cromwell in the west. The latter then marched north to meet the Scotch invaders, whom he defeated at Preston, and then advanced to Edinburgh, whence he drove the Royalists, and placed Argyle in power. He was recalled to the south by the news that charges of treason against him were being discussed, and that Parliament was negotiating with the king for his restoration. Fairfax's army entered London, forced the Commons to reject Charles's concessions, brought about his confinement in Windsor, and a resolution for his trial. Charles refused to plead before a court whose authority he denied, but nevertheless sentence of death was pronounced against him, and executed on January 30, 1649.

The Commonwealth.—The news of the king's death sent a thrill of horror throughout Europe, and Catholic and Protestant powers alike disclaimed connection with a nation that could commit such a deed. Scotland proclaimed Charles II. king, and Ireland avowed allegiance to him. In the latter country the danger seemed most pressing, and thither Cromwell went with twelve thousand men. He did his work quickly and fiercely, his victories being followed by

frightful massacres. He was recalled to command an invasion of Scotland, where an army was being raised for an invasion of England. The battle of Dunbar ended in the rout of the Scotch. But Charles in the next summer started for England with his army in spite of the remonstrances of his friends. Cromwell following, overtook him at Worcester, where, on September 3, 1651, the Royalists suffered another severe defeat.

In the spring of the next year a naval war was begun with Holland, which had been threatening for some time, and which lasted for nearly a year, with varying success, but which left the main victory with the English. Admiral Blake gained several victories over the Dutch, which greatly strengthened the Parliament on the Continent.

The breach between the army and Parliament, which had been increasing since the establishment of the Commonwealth, became an open rupture in 1653, when Cromwell took a force of armed men into the House, and ordered the members to vacate the places which they had insisted upon keeping without reelection.

This dissolution left England without a governing body, and it was not until September, 1654, that a legal Parliament was convened, affairs having in the meanwhile been conducted by Councils, with Cromwell as Protector. This Parliament was the first in which Scotland and Ireland were represented as at present. Its first business was to settle the question of government. It confirmed Cromwell as Protector, but having done this, it claimed the absolute right of Parliament to rule alone, setting aside his claim to an equal right. In anger at these slights, he dissolved Parliament in January, 1655, and held the government in his own hands. Extreme

military means were resorted to to prevent risings in England ; in Scotland the Highlanders were subdued, and in Ireland the work begun by Cromwell was carried on by his son Henry. Thousands perished ; some were sold into slavery ; and others deprived of homes and property. Order was restored, but the people were crushed.

But Cromwell was not satisfied to go on governing without the aid of Parliament, and therefore summoned another in 1657, which, while it supported many of his actions generously, stood firmly against his military government. At last Parliament concluded that if a single man must be at the head of affairs, that man might better be a king whose powers were fixed by precedent, than a protector who had no precedent ; and, accordingly, offered the crown to Cromwell, which he, knowing the temper of the army, declined. It then confirmed him as Protector, and restored many of the details of the older constitution, establishing two Houses, granting the Protector a fixed revenue, securing religious liberty to all except Roman Catholics. In the next year Cromwell died, on the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. His son Richard was declared his successor, and all the venom which the strength of Cromwell's government kept covered, broke forth violently against his system. The army and Parliament could not be united, the nation was tired of military rule, and when the exiled Charles offered a general pardon, the people gladly welcomed him back to England.

Charles II., 1660–1685.—Charles's first council was formed from both parties—his family's adherents and the Presbyterians. The work of the Long Parliament was not undone ; no voice was raised to have any of its ordinances changed ; the army was disbanded, excepting a few troops

designated as the king's guard; a general pardon was granted, except to the persons, and property of those immediately responsible for the death of Charles I.

Notwithstanding the promise of religious toleration made by Charles in his proclamation from Breda, one of his earliest steps was to restore prelacy, while still hoping for some plan whereby the two parties might agree as to the forms and modes of worship. But in 1662 Parliament passed, with Charles's approval, the Act of Uniformity, requiring the clergy to use the Prayer-Book, and to assent to all contained therein. The change that this wrought was sweeping and severe; nearly two thousand ministers, many of them able and earnest workers, were forced from their charges.

In 1665 a quarrel, growing out of commercial rivalries, which had long been pending between England and Holland, came to a crisis, and three naval battles were fought, the last (June, 1666,) giving England the victory, after a four days' contest with the combined Dutch and French fleets. During the same period London was visited by the plague, which carried off thousands, and also by a fire which continuing for three days, reduced a large part of the city to ashes. While overtures for peace were pending, the Dutch not only took possession of the Channel, and harassed the towns on the coast, but even sailed into the Thames, and threatened London. Not only were no efforts made to punish these proceedings, but peace was concluded in 1667. On the head of Clarendon, the chancellor, fell the odium of the disgrace into which England had fallen, and an attempt was made to impeach him, which resulted in his banishment.

In January, 1668, was concluded the Triple Alliance between England, Holland and Swe-

den, against Louis XIV. of France, who had set up a claim to the Spanish Netherlands. This forced upon Louis the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. But the joy at this was scarcely expressed when Charles, by the Treaty of Dover, bound himself to France for an attack upon Holland, on the condition of a subsidy large enough to permit him to dispense with Parliament.

The Royal Council was won to the war with Holland by the promise of religious toleration. The Declaration of Indulgence soon followed, suspending all laws against non-conformists, and also the declaration of war, which, though marked by some vigorous action, came to a close in the early part of 1674, without any definite result, partly because of the strength of the Prince of Orange, and partly because of the unwillingness of the Commons to grant means to carry it on. The Commons looked with suspicion upon the actions of the king, and having obtained the recall of the Declaration of Indulgence, they passed the Test Act, requiring from all persons holding public office, oaths of supremacy, allegiance, and conformity with the uses of the established Church. Charles yielded; many leading men in the government, and even James, Duke of York, the king's brother, declared themselves Roman Catholics. Shaftesbury paid for his share in this proceeding with the loss of his chancellorship, and then threw himself into the Opposition.

Danby, as Lord Treasurer, did what he could to reconcile the king and Parliament, and by means of bribery won a grant of supplies. Roused by the successes of the French in Holland, England raised an army, and married Mary, the heir presumptive to the throne, to William of Orange. But suddenly peace was declared (July, 1678), which left France master

of Europe. Charles's negotiations with Louis during this crisis gave color to rumors of an attempt to restore Catholicism in England. Several plots were discovered which tended in the same direction, and several suspected peers were sent to the Tower, and many hundreds of citizens to prison. Fearful lest some of his shameful actions should be disclosed, Charles yielded to the urgency of Shaftesbury, and formed a new ministry and summoned a new Parliament. One of its first acts was the passage by the Commons of the Exclusion Bill, preventing the accession of James, and passing the title to the throne to the next Protestant heir. Here, however, the Bill stopped, for the ministry were not united as to what was best to be done. Shaftesbury urged passing over James and his children, and raising the Duke of Monmouth, Charles's illegitimate son, to the throne; the others desired the accession of Mary and William of Orange. Failing to agree, they urged dissolution, and Shaftesbury was dismissed from the council. He then set himself to inflame the opposition to Charles by encouraging the rumors of plots for the subversion of religion, and caused petitions for the reassembling of Parliament to rise in all parts of the country. Those who opposed the petitions and upheld the course of the crown were called "abhorrrers," from which two parties, the later Whigs and Tories, arose.

The long struggle between Charles and Shaftesbury ended at last in an appeal to the nation for justice, the result of which was that the universities decided that hereditary succession must be maintained. Shaftesbury's death not long afterward, removed an obstacle from the path of Charles's actions, but before much could be done Charles also died.

In spite of Charles's attempts at tyranny, his reign is marked by several steps toward greater liberty to the people, the most important of which is the Habeas Corpus Act.

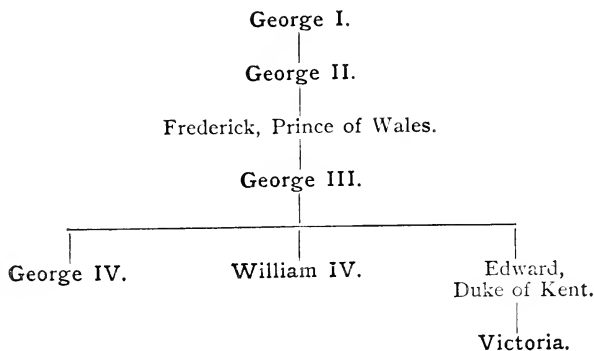
James II., 1685-1688.—James's first step was to promise protection to the established Church, and the country showed its readiness to support him by the generosity with which Parliament voted his revenue. This loyalty was soon tested by a rebellion which broke out simultaneously in England and Scotland, headed by the Dukes of Monmouth and Argyle. The latter was instantly put down, and Monmouth, after being for a time successful, was defeated and beheaded. The severest measures followed. Hundreds were hanged, exiled or imprisoned. Relying on aid from France, James proceeded to place Catholics at the head of his army, and on the judges' benches, to openly show his adherence to that religion, and to protect it from assaults from the Protestant clergy. He forced Catholics into the universities, and at last issued a Declaration of Indulgence, hoping to insure immunity for those of his own faith under pretext of relieving the non-conformists from the penalties and persecutions they endured. His failure in this led him to demand the repeal of the Test Act, but to no purpose.

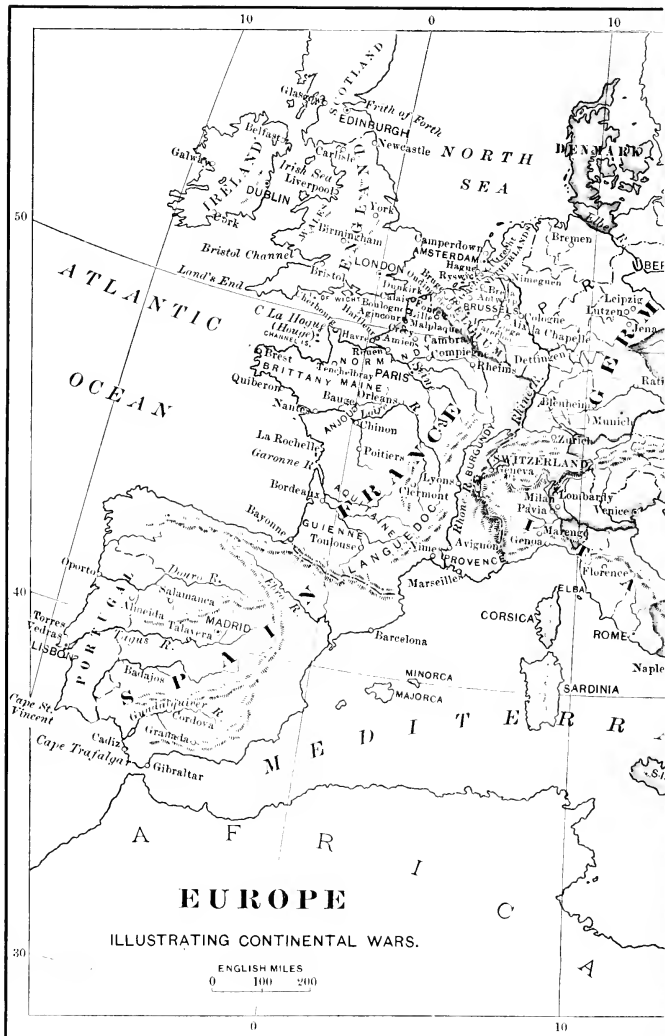
Long had the eyes of the people been turned to James's daughter Mary, hoping better things from her, chiefly because of the power that her accession would give her husband. He was a champion of Protestantism, and had withstood the encroachments of Louis in his attempt to ruin Spain by becoming master of the Netherlands. He had opposed the placing of a French prince on the throne of Austria, and had been the chief instrument in forming the Triple Alliance to accomplish that purpose. Afterward he

added Spain and the Empire to the alliance, from which, however, England had by that time withdrawn in Charles's anxiety to rely upon France. Just at the time when the great struggle on the Continent was drawing near, William answered the call of England to interfere and save English liberty and the Protestant religion. Noble after noble joined him in Holland, and early in November, 1688, William landed in England amid great rejoicings. Town after town, and leader after leader joined him, and James fled to France. His abdication placed the crown in the hands of his daughter, and she and William were declared joint sovereigns.

CHAPTER VII.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.







CONTEMPORARY EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

<i>England.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Germany.</i>	<i>Spain.</i>	<i>Prussia.</i>	<i>Russia.</i>
William III. and Mary. Anne. George I. George II.	Louis XIV. Louis XV.	Leopold I. Joseph I. Charles VI.	Charles II. Philip V.	Frederick I. Frederick Wm. I.	Peter the Great. Catharine I. Peter II. Anne. Ivan VI. Elizabeth.
George III.	Louis XVI. Republic. Napoleon Bonaparte Louis XVIII.	Maria Theresa. Charles VII. Francis I. Joseph II. Leopold II. Francis II.	Ferdinand VI. Charles III. Charles IV. Ferdinand VII. Joseph Bonaparte. Ferdinand VII. restored.	Frederick II. Frederick II. Frederick Wm. II. Frederick Wm. III.	Peter III. Catharine II. Paul I. Alexander I.
George IV. William IV. Victoria.	Charles X. Louis Philippe. Napoleon III. Republic.	<i>Austria.</i> Francis I. Ferdinand. Francis Joseph.	Isabella II.	Frederick Wm. IV.	Nicholas. Alexander II.

THE REVOLUTION.

William and Mary, 1688-1702.—The revolution was not, however, to be a bloodless one. In Scotland a revolt of the Highlanders was followed by a frightful massacre at Glencoe, in which that branch of the Clan of McDonald was nearly destroyed. In Ireland, where James had put power into the hands of Catholics, the news of his flight was the signal for an attack upon the Protestants. James sailed to Ireland and his forces besieged Londonderry, where the fugitives had gathered. At the end of one hundred and five days, when the besieged were almost starved out, the besiegers were alarmed into withdrawal by the appearance of some English vessels.

All this time William was forced into inactivity because his army was on the Continent, but when in 1690 the French king sent a strong force into Ireland to James's assistance, William immediately went thither and met the Irish army at the Boyne. The defeat that followed sent James back to France, and William's presence being needed on the Continent, he left the work in Ireland to Lord Marlborough, who had already proved his efficiency as a general. He won peace, but at the cost of crushing the people whom he conquered. For a century there was peace, but it "was a peace of despair."

Meanwhile France had won success after success on the Continent and even at sea, for the French actually landed on the English coast. Reverses too in the Netherlands shook the faith in William; but just at this crisis a fierce naval battle resulted in the disastrous defeat of the French, and the spell being once broken, vic-

tories on land followed, and in the Peace of Ryswick (1697), France was forced to yield many of her acquired possessions and to give up the cause of the Stuarts in England.

But another struggle was at hand. At the death of Charles II. of Spain the throne would be without heirs and there were three claimants for the succession—the Dauphin of France, the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, both of whose claims were barred by a renunciation, and the Emperor of Germany, whose claim, though more remote, was more legal. William threw the weight of his influence on the side of Bavaria. But the death of the Bavarian prince brought all the plans to nought, and at the death of Charles the crown devolved by will upon the Duke of Anjou, the second son of the dauphin. who became king under the title of Philip V.

Inasmuch as William and Mary had no children, and as the children of Anne had died while young, Parliament in 1701 passed the Act of Settlement, giving the crown to Sophia, wife of the Elector of Hanover, and her heirs. The succession was thus kept in the Stuart line, since Sophia was a lineal descendant from James I. At the same time Parliament decided that thereafter the sovereign must be a member of the Church of England; that he must not leave Great Britain or Ireland without consent of Parliament; and several other points which were important for the welfare of the country.

Throughout the agitation consequent upon the accession of a French prince to the Spanish throne, William's hands were tied by the strong disinclination to war manifested by Parliament, but when Louis, in defiance of the Treaty of Ryswick, acknowledged James's son king of England, an alliance against France was formed with Germany, and the Commons voted 40,000

soldiers and the same number of seamen. At this crisis William died.

Anne, 1702-1714.—By the provisions of the Act of Settlement, Anne, James's second daughter, became queen, and as soon as crowned she dismissed the ministry, to replace them with Tories, while she announced her determination to pursue the foreign policy of William. To Marlborough was accordingly given the command of the allied army, and he gained some victories in Flanders. In 1703 the French gained the general advantage, although Marlborough was not without success. In 1704 a bolder plan was adopted, by which the allied army met the French and Bavarians at Blenheim on the Danube, where, in spite of the advantage of the position held by the French, Marlborough made an attack. After a long and desperate struggle the allies were victorious, although at a cost of nearly 14,000 killed and wounded. The French lost many more. This victory freed Germany from fear of Bavaria, gave her accession of territory and gained the alliance of the King of Prussia. In Spain, too, the English were meeting with success. The emperor had caused his son to be crowned King of Spain with the title of Charles III., and he was supported by the English. Shortly after his arrival in Spain the English forces took Gibraltar and afterward defeated a fleet sent to regain it. In 1705 several towns on the eastern coast acknowledged Charles III. In the north the successes were mostly on the side of the French.

In the early part of 1706 Marlborough gained the brilliant victory of Ramillies, thereby securing a large part of the Spanish possessions in the Netherlands. In Italy, the French were defeated, and in Spain, Charles III. gained some advantages. The campaigns of 1707 and 1708

had no very marked results except the battle of Oudenarde, in which Marlborough was the victor, the capture of Lisle, of Bruges and Ghent, and the abandonment of Brussels by Bavaria. In 1709 peace was proposed, but the demands of the Allies were so great that Louis roused France to reject them. Marlborough then took Tournay, and drove the French from Malplaquet. Peace was again proposed in the next year, but the war continued and was not finally closed until 1713, by the Peace of Utrecht, by the terms of which, France abandoned the cause of the Pretender, ceded Newfoundland and other territory in North America; Naples and the Spanish Netherlands were given to the emperor, Sicily to Savoy, Sardinia to Bavaria, several towns of Flanders to Holland, Gibraltar and Minorca remained to England.

Meanwhile events had been transpiring in England, the most important of which, was the union with Scotland. Statesmen had been attracted by this idea for many years, and just now when the succession was about to devolve upon a new branch, it seemed a wise precaution for securing peace between the countries. The succession of the house of Hanover was extremely distasteful to the Scotch Parliament. Without the aid of France, however, Scotland could not openly resist, and France was crippled by the war. The articles of union therefore were adopted in January, 1709, and went into effect on the first of May following.

Owing to the warm intimacy existing between the queen and the Duchess of Marlborough, as well as to the high regard in which Anne held Marlborough himself, he was her chief adviser during the early part of her reign, and he had also won many tokens of the regard of the people. He and his friend Lord Godolphin had

managed the government and moulded the actions of the queen, until the temper of the nation was so clearly shown to be opposed to them and their administration, that the queen gradually removed all the ministers and replaced them with Tories. Marlborough, although retaining command of the army, withdrew from court, where he had now many enemies. Partly from hostility to Marlborough, and partly because the death of the emperor and the accession to the imperial throne of Charles III., titular King of Spain, had altered the relation of England to the war, the new ministry were anxious for peace. Marlborough combated this, a proceeding which called forth much hostility and charges of illegal practices in pecuniary matters. Whereupon Marlborough, who had already been removed from his command, retired into private life at Antwerp.

Excitement over a ministerial contest between Harley, lord treasurer, and Bolingbroke, minister of state, is supposed to have hastened the queen's death, which occurred in August, 1714.

George I., 1714-1727.—The new royal house was peacefully established, and the new king acknowledged in Scotland and Ireland, and by the European powers. Lord Townshend superseded Bolingbroke, and became prime minister, and other changes were made in the council. George did not in any way impress himself upon the government, which throughout his reign and that of his son, lay in the hands of the prime minister, who for fifty years came from the Whig party. This was the stronger party in the Commons, for the discovery that several of Anne's Tory ministers were interested in Jacobite plots, sent the mass of the country to the other party which supported the principles of the Revolution. The administration was inactive at home

and peaceful abroad, and the inaction gave England an opportunity to grow in wealth and manufactures.

There were, of course, some interruptions to this general policy. The first was the attempt in 1715 of the Pretender, the son of James II., to regain the throne. The Earl of Mar started the revolt in the north, and was joined by several thousand Highlanders. Opposed to him was a small force under Argyle; but the incapacity of Mar kept him inactive. James himself was not stronger as a leader, and the attempt ended in failure.

In 1716 the Triennial Bill was repealed, and the duration of Parliament extended to seven years, in order to insure greater steadiness of action. The same year saw the culmination of attempts on the part of the Spanish king to regain possessions ceded to France by the Treaty of Utrecht, and to re-assert his claim to the throne of France. A triple alliance of England, France and Holland guaranteed the succession of the house of Orleans in France, and of Hanover in England, and forced Philip to withdraw his claims.

The failure of the financial scheme known as the South Sea Bubble, brought Robert Walpole to the head of the ministry, where he remained for twenty years. His policy was one of peace. He was the first English minister who was great as a financier, and under his wise government England increased in wealth, commerce and manufactures. One of his first acts was to remove a great many duties from imports and exports; then he removed restrictions on commerce in the colonies, and strove to carry out plans for taxation, which failed because they were so far in advance of the knowledge of his time upon financial questions.

George II., 1727-1760.—Through the influence of Queen Caroline, Walpole was retained as prime minister. For twelve years he carried out his policy of peace, until commercial difficulties arose with Spain, in consequence of which war seemed inevitable. There was a strong opposition party, founded on dislike to Walpole, which numbered among its members many of the ablest men of the time, and of which William Pitt soon became the recognized leader. Walpole, forced to declare war or resign his office, chose the former alternative, and war was declared accordingly in 1739.

In November Admiral Vernon captured Porto Bello, on the Isthmus of Darien ; and in 1741 he made a disastrous attempt upon Carthagena. Other fleets were equally unsuccessful. Some of the odium of these failures fell upon Walpole, and this, added to his former unpopularity, caused his defeat in the elections of 1741. After an unsuccessful attempt on the part of his enemies to impeach him for bribery, he retired to private life as the Earl of Orford, and died in 1745.

England had now become involved in the war of the Austrian succession. By the Pragmatic Sanction, the succession of Maria Theresa to the throne of her father, the Emperor Charles VI., had been guaranteed. Upon his death in 1740, the succession was claimed by the Elector of Bavaria, supported by France. Taking advantage of this state of affairs, Frederick II. of Prussia entered Silesia and gained a victory over the Austrians. England took up the cause of Maria Theresa ; Spain joined France in opposing her. In 1743 the English army, augmented by forces from Hanover, defeated the French at Dettingen, and forced them to evacuate Germany. In 1745 the battle of Fontenoy was lost by the English

through the flight of the Dutch at the crisis of the engagement. This was followed by other victories in favor of the French.

The condition of England after these defeats suggested to the younger Pretender, a grandson of James II., the possibility of a successful attempt for the recovery of the crown. He had failed the previous year, but in 1745 he purchased two vessels and sailed for Scotland. Landing in the north, he marched southward, being joined on the way by Highlanders, and entered Perth and Edinburgh. On September 21 he fought and won the battle of Preston Pans. He was now proclaimed king in Scotland, and was encouraged to proceed into England. Avoiding two armies which England had prepared to meet him, he advanced as far as Derby, when, disappointed at not being joined by English aid, he was forced to retreat. The English, under the Duke of Cumberland, pursued, and at last overtook and defeated him at Culloden Moor. The greatest cruelties were perpetrated upon the Highlanders after the battle. Prince Charles escaped to France, and died in 1788.

In 1746 the Earl of Chesterfield became secretary of state, and held the office for two years. After his retirement from public life he introduced a measure for the regulation of the calendar, in which errors of calculation had arisen. After 1752 the civil year began on January 1, instead of on March 25, as formerly.

In 1748 the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was concluded, confirming the right of Maria Theresa to Austria, granting Silesia to Frederick, and restoring all acquired territory. For several years there was no military action. Commerce increased, and colonization extended.

But war was again threatening. Trouble in the colonies bred trouble between the mother

countries. In 1756 the French appeared before Minorca, and the English governor was obliged to capitulate. The country cried out against this outrage. Admiral Byng, the commander of the fleet sent to aid the garrison, was executed by a court martial.

The unpopularity incurred by this and other disgraces, forced Newcastle to resign. Fox, who had been secretary of state, also resigned, and Pitt, though personally distasteful to the king, was asked to accept the office. Preparations were immediately made for war. Almost all Europe was now leagued against Frederick of Prussia, and in 1757 the Duke of Cumberland set out for the Continent to help him. Defeat followed, however, and Hanover was lost. Frederick later recovered himself somewhat, and fresh preparations were made for the next year. In America, the capture of Louisberg was followed by the submission of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island. In Europe attempts were made on some of the French seaports, which, though not in themselves successful, drew some attention and resources from Germany. In 1759 a victory was won off Quiberon; but the greatest success of the year was achieved in Canada, where Quebec was taken through the courage and skill of General Wolfe.

The reigns of Anne and the first Georges mark an epoch in the history of English literature. A new impulse to poetic production had been given by Dryden in lyric and dramatic work, and he was followed in both branches by a number of minor poets. A group of great prose satirists belong to this period, among them Swift and Defoe. A little later the essayists arose, who wrote about everyday events in an easy, graceful style. Chief among these are Addison and Steele, and by them periodical

literature was created, while the removal of the censorship of the press after the Revolution, allowed the growth of newspaper literature. Another important form of prose work began in the reign of George II.—that of the novel, in the hands of Richardson, Fielding and Smollett.

George III., 1760-1820.—The new king was the first of the Hanoverians who had been born in England, a fact that was pleasing to the English people. He seems, too, to have laid aside many of the party feelings which had characterized the former sovereigns, while Pitt continued at the head of the government.

In 1761, Pitt foreseeing a declaration of war by Spain in accordance with an agreement with France, advised England to forestall her intentions and open war by seizing some Spanish trading vessels. The proposal was rejected by the rest of the ministers and Pitt resigned, retiring to private life as Lord Chatham. But war was inevitable and was declared in the next year. Changes in the ministry put Lord Bute, a favorite of the king, at the head of affairs, against whom Wilkes in the *North Briton* directed the severest articles. Notwithstanding the success which attended English arms, peace was sought, and concluded in 1763. This peace closed the Seven Years' War, and by it England gained among other territory Nova Scotia, Cape Breton and Canada.

In the meantime these wars were affecting another part of the world. The East India Company, established in the reign of Elizabeth, had, under a charter from Charles II., acquired wealth and power, and settlements had been made at Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. A French company, established during the reign of Louis XIV., had also made settlements in the

near neighborhood of the English, and in the middle of the eighteenth century, during the troubles between France and England, one of the French governors took Madras and plotted with the natives for the overthrow of English dominion. A native prince, the Surajah Dowlah, seized Calcutta, throwing most of the English inhabitants into the prison known as the Black Hole, where many of them died in a night. To avenge this, Clive, governor of Fort St. David, re-took Calcutta and pursued the Surajah Dowlah to Plassey, where he was severely defeated. Cessions of territory were made to the English and Clive became governor of Bengal. In 1760 Clive returned to England, and before long, through the inefficiency and dishonesty of the servants of the East India Company, affairs both political and financial were in a low condition. Returning in 1765, Clive set himself to remedy the existing evils, and in two years reduced them to order. During his next absence the condition of affairs sunk so low that the government in England passed in 1773 an act regulating matters in some directions and appointing Warren Hastings governor-general of India.

Hastings's government was able, though not always scrupulously honest. He captured many of the French settlements. But he had many enemies, and in 1787 a bill of impeachment was brought against him, on the ground mainly of tyranny and extortion in his treatment of the natives. His trial, opening in 1788, continued for seven years, at the end of which time Hastings was acquitted by a large majority.

The unpopularity of Bute soon compelled his resignation, and in the changes that followed Grenville became Lord of the Treasury and Fox leader of the Commons. Of Grenville's unwise proceedings the most fatal was the imposition, in

1765, of the Stamp Act upon the American Colonies, in order to meet the expenses of the late war. This the colonies were not willing to submit to, and resolutions were adopted in the local Assemblies denying England's right to tax the colonies. Grenville was forced to resign, and the new ministry called for a repeal of the act. The ministry under Lord North repealed all taxes save that on tea. Roused by various causes of resentment, a crisis at last occurred when some of the people of Boston destroyed a cargo of tea which Lord North had caused to be sent thither. Immediately England closed the port of Boston. Fearful for their liberties, the colonists called a Congress which drew up a Declaration of Rights and resolved not to trade with England until their restrictions were removed.

Pitt, now Lord Chatham, and other influential men did all in their power to avert the threatened disaster, but to no purpose. Troops were sent across the water and the colonists prepared for a struggle. After the defeat of the patriots at Bunker Hill, in 1775, the command of the American army was given to George Washington, who at once surrounded Boston, shutting in the English troops. We can not dwell upon the details of this war, but shall pass over it in campaigns, noting results. 1776 was mainly successful to the British; an attack on Canada being repulsed, and Washington suffering a severe defeat on Long Island, followed by a long retreat into New Jersey. But this year is marked by the passage in the Congress at Philadelphia of the celebrated Declaration of Independence. 1777 also gave the English some successes in the vicinity of Philadelphia, which, however, were more than balanced by the surrender of General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga. 1778 brought

help to the Americans from France, but though there were many actions, neither this year nor the next brought any striking results. 1780 is marked by English ascendancy in the South, and the attempt on the part of Arnold to deliver West Point, an important position on the Hudson, to the English. 1781 opened dismally for the Americans, but a series of successes in the South under General Greene was followed by the surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. Peace was concluded in 1783, acknowledging without reserve the independence of the American colonies.

The aid sent by the French to the colonies was at first individual, but when the king received an American minister, England declared war against her, and in 1779 Spain and France sent out their united fleets. In 1780 the English under Admiral Rodney gained an important victory over the Spanish off Cape St. Vincent, and then he sailed to the West Indies, and in 1782 defeated the French fleet and saved the island of Jamaica. The last action of the war was the repulse of the combined fleets off Gibraltar.

The disastrous result of the American war forced the resignation of Lord North, and with the new government, William Pitt, second son of the late Lord Chatham, came into power, and before long he was at the head of the ministry. One of his first acts was to carry through Parliament a bill for the wiser government of India, and for increasing the revenue of England. His next attempt was toward reform in Parliament itself; but in this he was defeated. With these efforts and with the trial of Warren Hastings, the government occupied itself, while England was growing in population, commerce, industries and wealth. The invention of machinery for spinning and weaving improved the manufacture of linen

and cloths; and the increase in manufactures calling for increased facilities for transportation, the centres of English trade were soon connected by fine roads and canals. But the eyes of the world were soon to be turned upon France. Seemingly in a condition of prosperity, she was in reality on the verge of a great revolution.

In a financial crisis, Louis XVI. summoned the States General in order to raise money. Almost immediately the Paris mob attacked and destroyed the Bastille. This act was hailed in England and on the Continent as a step toward the attainment of a constitutional government which should displace the despotism of the kings. But when the mob, giving way to their passions, committed all sorts of violent deeds, two parties arose in England, one strongly favoring and the other equally disapproving their action. Fox was the leader of the former and Edmund Burke of the latter party, while Pitt thought that the trouble would all subside when constitutional freedom was established, and was anxious to maintain friendship with France, especially as he might need her aid in another part of Europe.

Catharine the Second of Russia had set her heart upon annexing Poland and Turkey to Russia. The first plan was foiled by the division of Poland between Russia, Prussia and Austria. In 1788 Catharine and Joseph of Austria combined for a division of Turkish territory. But the King of Prussia was on the alert, and called England and Holland to his assistance. France was needed too. At this point a treaty was concluded which only deferred the trouble until 1792, when France declared war upon the Emperor of Austria, because he had expressed his willingness to aid some of the French exiles in the restoration of the Bourbons.

All sympathy in England for the revolution

died when Louis was seized and imprisoned, and a reign of bloodshed and terror instituted. England stood neutral, however, until the French declared war upon her and Holland in 1793. French arms were generally successful in the first year of the war, and the repulse of the English from Toulon was effected by Napoleon Bonaparte, a young officer of artillery, who was afterward to become so famous. Her victories encouraged France to attempt distant conquests, and Piedmont was subdued by Napoleon, while an attack upon Vienna failed. In 1797 France gained Lombardy and the alliance of Spain, Prussia and Austria, and England was left to carry on the contest unaided. England's naval victories had been continuous throughout the war; the Spanish fleet having been defeated off Cape St. Vincent, the Dutch, forced by conquest into French service, having been almost destroyed off Camperdown, and in 1798 the fleet which had carried Napoleon to Egypt was severely defeated by Commodore Nelson in Aboukir Bay. This last victory restored to England some of her allies. The Austrians and Russians forced the French from Italy, and an English army forced Napoleon to abandon his Eastern plans. Meanwhile the English made an unsuccessful attempt to recover Holland.

Toward the close of 1799, Napoleon became First Consul of France, and in 1800 crossed into Italy, and after the battle of Marengo set up a republic in Lombardy.

The disturbed state of affairs in Ireland now brought that country to special notice. Roused, it may be, by the successful revolutions in America and France, the Irish had several years before organized a plan of insurrection, under the leadership of Wolfe Tone and others. The plan was discovered, and some of the leaders arrested.

Many acts of violence took place, and several engagements between the revolting Irish and the English troops. The rebels were defeated finally at Vinegar Hill in 1798, and tranquillity restored. The project for a union, which had been long discussed, took shape in a bill which passed both houses of Parliament in 1800. Pitt also attempted to carry a bill removing certain religious disabilities, and on its failure resigned from his office in the ministry.

In 1802 the Peace of Amiens restored everything to its position before the war. But the peace was not of long duration. Napoleon's ambition would not let him rest master of France. He aimed at the destruction of Western Europe, and its reduction to a despotism. England was his most formidable enemy, and against England he planned an invasion. The fear of this invasion called Pitt to the head of the government. He formed alliances with Russia, Austria and Sweden to drive the French from Italy and the Low Countries. In October, 1805, Lord Nelson effectually defeated the French fleet off Cape Trafalgar, and Napoleon, now Emperor of France and King of Italy, abandoned his attempt on England to march into Austria, where he won the battle of Austerlitz over the Austrians and Russians. In 1806 the battle of Jena established his power in Northern Germany. From Berlin he issued his Berlin Decree forbidding all commerce with England.

During this year (1806) both Pitt and Fox died. Under the ministry of Lord Grenville, the bill for Catholic Emancipation was again brought forward and lost. The abolition of the slave-trade was carried, however, after having been under discussion for twenty years.

From Berlin Napoleon marched into Poland, and in 1807 gained the alliance of the Czar Al-

exander. The emperor made one of his brothers King of Holland, another, king of Westphalia, and a third of Naples. In the meantime the war had progressed in the Peninsula. A revolution had forced the Spanish king, Charles IV., to abdicate in favor of his son, who in turn resigned his claim to the throne, which Napoleon at once seized and handed over to his brother Joseph. The Spanish sought and obtained assistance from England, and Sir Arthur Wellesley had gained some advantages when the appearance of Napoleon forced the English back to the coast. The army was reinforced and gained a decisive victory at Talavera, but lost the result by a retreat to Badajoz. Spain was almost reduced to submission, and in Austria and the Netherlands France was victorious. But Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, having been reinforced, took his position at Torres Vedras, and baffled all the efforts of General Massena to dislodge him. The French were driven to a retreat, which was disastrous, and Wellington besieged Almeida, and retained control of Portugal, though he could not release Spain from French control.

Meanwhile Napoleon's course was leading to two results. First, one of his war measures against England was to shut her out from commerce with the continental nations, and for this purpose he had in 1806 issued his Berlin Decree, which was followed in England by the Orders in Council, compelling all vessels to blockaded ports to touch at England. These restrictions interfered seriously with American commerce, and the Non-intercourse Act in 1808 suspended all trade between the United States and France and England. The difficulty was increased by the assumption by England of the right to search American vessels for deserters, and war was declared by President Madison in 1812.



ENGLAND

THE BRUNSWICK PERIOD,
OR MODERN ENGLAND.

ENGLISH MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40 50

Second, the same desire to ruin England's trade led Napoleon to a war with Russia. By degrees the French empire was creeping eastward, greatly to the anxiety of the Czar, and when Napoleon demanded that he should observe the decrees concerning commerce with England, Russia prepared to resist. The withdrawal of the greater part of the French army to Poland, left Wellington a comparatively free field, and the victory at Salamanca compelled King Joseph to leave Madrid. But the crisis of the war was not to be fought out in Spain.

In June, 1812, Napoleon crossed the Niemen, on his way to Moscow. The battle of Borodino paved the way for his entrance to the capital, where he waited for the Czar to offer terms of peace; but the burning of the city by its inhabitants forced him to a fatal retreat in midwinter. He raised a fresh army, however, and in May, 1813, marched against the allied troops of Russia and Prussia, defeating them at Lutzen. The battle of Leipzig in October sent the French back across the Rhine. Following up this advantage, the allies entered Paris in March, 1814. Napoleon abdicated, and the Bourbon king, Louis XVIII., was established on the throne.

At the same time war was in progress in America. Neither the army nor the navy of the United States was well equipped, and the States were divided on the subject of the war. Few of her land actions were successful, but this was quite compensated for by her successes on the water. The English vessels did much damage along the coasts, one party sailing up the Chesapeake, and destroying the public buildings at Washington. Two expeditions, one to enter the States from the north, the other from the south, were failures; the first from the destruction of the English fleet on Lake Champlain, the other

by the successful resistance of General Jackson at New Orleans. The close of the war in Europe closed that in America also, in 1814.

England's hands were scarcely free from this difficulty when she was called upon to meet her former enemy. Napoleon, who, from his refuge in Elba, saw an admirable opportunity for another attempt for power in the disagreements which sprang up among the allies concerning the annexation of Saxony and Poland to Prussia and Russia, left Elba in March, 1815, and entered France, and in twenty days reached Paris. Louis XVIII. fled; and the allies set aside their disputes, and raised immense armies for his overthrow. The Duke of Wellington planned to unite with the Prussian, Austrian and Russian armies in a concentrated attack.

Napoleon having raised an army of nearly 250,000 men, lay near Charleroi. The allies tried to unite at Quatre Bras, but Blucher was attacked at Ligny and driven back. At the same time Marshal Ney attacked a few English at Quatre Bras, and was defeated. On the next day Wellington withdrew to Waterloo, where on June 18th he was attacked by Napoleon. One of the most notable battles of history was fought on this ground, the armies being equal in number and in force, and it ended after a long struggle in the defeat and retreat of the French with heavy loss. The entry of the English and Prussians into Paris, and the restoration of Louis XVIII., followed Napoleon's flight and second abdication. Napoleon finding all means of escape shut off, surrendered himself to the English, who imprisoned him on the island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

The close of the long war was followed by a period of financial and industrial depression, accompanied by a tendency to insurrection. It

was not openly of long duration, but was not entirely removed until some changes in legislation were effected.

In 1820 George III. died, after a reign of sixty years. For the ten years previous to his death, his mind had been so diseased as to render him unfit for his duties, and his son, the Prince of Wales, had acted as regent. This son now succeeded him.

George IV., 1820–1830.—This reign of ten years contains little action. Its importance is almost entirely legislative, and its greatest work, the Catholic Emancipation Bill. An attempt in this direction had been made by Pitt, though without success. Under Canning's leadership in the Commons, the question was frequently discussed, but it was not until 1828 that Peel, who up to this time had opposed the measure, came forward as its advocate, and it was finally passed in the following year. It admitted Catholics to all offices excepting the regency and the chancellorship.

William IV., 1830–1838.—The time had now come in the minds of many for a reform in the composition of Parliament itself. The people were still disturbed, and when it was feared that the new administration would oppose this reform, the dissatisfaction was quite marked. The ministry was changed to one favorable to the measure, and a bill presented to the Commons by Lord John Russell. When rejected by the Lords, the disappointment of the people showed itself in violence in many parts of England. At the next session, 1832, it was carried. By its provisions the franchise was extended and equalized, and representation made more impartial.

The total abolition of slavery, a measure so strongly and for so long advocated by Wilberforce and others, was carried during the reign, as were

some minor municipal and ecclesiastical changes. The death of William called to the throne his niece, the daughter of the Duke of Kent.

Victoria, 1837.—The accession of Victoria separated the crowns of England and Hanover, for as the latter devolved in the male line, it passed to the Duke of Cumberland, the oldest living son of George III.

A series of disturbances marked the first years of Victoria's reign. A rebellion in Canada was put down by force. At home discontent and distress arising from the failure of successive harvests, caused various disorders. A large party calling themselves Chartists demanded further Parliamentary reforms, making suffrage universal, and removing property qualifications. The more violent of these broke into riot and bloodshed. The Anti-Corn-Law League sought to remove the cause of these disturbances by the establishment of free trade. Under the leadership of Mr. Cobden, Mr. Bright and others, the League agitated its principles, and at last won Peel to its support. In 1846 a bill was passed reducing some duties and abolishing those on wheat and other necessary foods.

The revolution of 1848, which drove Louis Philippe from the throne of France, and which was felt more or less throughout Europe, showed itself in Ireland more violently than in England, probably because of the greater distress in that country. Outward tranquillity was restored after the transportation of its leaders. In 1850 Sir Robert Peel died, who had been active in so many financial reforms; and 1852 saw the death of the Duke of Wellington.

In 1853 the shadow of war again rested on the country. Under pretext of settling a dispute between the Greek and Catholic Churches at Jerusalem, the Czar, who coveted Constantino-

ple, entered European Turkey. England and France combined against Russia, and their united fleets entered the Black Sea. Here early in 1854 the fleet was joined by an army under Lord Raglan, and the siege of Sevastopol undertaken. The siege lasted nearly a year in spite of many attempts by the Russians to raise it. Two notable actions were those of Balaklava and Inkerman, in which the allied troops displayed invincible courage. In September, 1855, two of the important outposts were taken and the town evacuated by the Russians. The war had also been carried on in the Baltic Sea, but without results. The Black Sea fleet aided in the siege of Sevastopol by cutting off the supplies of the besieged. During this war the condition of the sick and wounded soldiers was much ameliorated by the founding of hospitals, and the organized efforts of Miss Florence Nightingale and other women. A treaty of peace concluded in 1856 established among other privileges the freedom of the Danube.

By degrees the whole of the Indian peninsula had come under British dominion, either by conquest or alliance; but there had for some time been symptoms of discontent among the native troops, and in 1857 it broke out into open rebellion. Delhi was seized, and the whole of the territory of Bengal estranged, until restored by force of arms. This rebellion led to the withdrawal of the charter of the East India Company in 1858, and the placing of the government of India directly in the hands of the crown. In the same year Jews were admitted to Parliament.

In 1860 the ministry under Lord Palmerston carried the abolition or reduction of duties, thus virtually establishing free trade. An attempt in the same year for Parliamentary reform failed.

Trouble with China came to a crisis in this year. English and French envoys on their way to Peking, in order to ratify a treaty, were fired upon at the mouth of the Peiho river. Other hostilities followed, and it was only by careful negotiations that war was averted. China agreed to receive a representative from England and France, and to open some of her ports to commerce.

With the American civil war we can only concern ourselves so far as some of its issues affected England. It had its immediate cause in the violent secession of some of the Southern States. In the prosecution of the war several privateers were fitted out in England for the use of the Southern party, one of which, the *Alabama*, in a career of two years, captured nearly seventy Northern ships, deceiving them while at a distance by sailing under the British flag. In 1870 the American government demanded from England indemnification for injury done to Northern commerce by the *Alabama* and other cruisers. A long controversy followed, and in 1871 it was decided to refer this and other disputed points to a commission, which met at Washington, and decided upon a basis of arbitration. The matter was then referred to a tribunal consisting of a representative of the English and American governments, the King of Italy, the Emperor of Brazil, and the President of the Swiss Confederation. The court decided in favor of the United States, and awarded about three millions and a quarter sterling in settlement of all claims.

In the meantime other events of interest had been transpiring. Confident of the success of the South, and of the consequent dismemberment of the United States, the Emperor of the French conceived a plan for overthrowing the Mexican Republic and setting up a monarchy,

which should be under French control. By force of arms he succeeded, and placed Maximilian, brother to the Emperor of Austria, on the throne, in spite of the protests of the American government. The unexpected termination of the war in favor of the North, and the growing strength of the Republican forces in Mexico, brought about the downfall of Napoleon's scheme after a success of about two months.

In 1866 a Reform Bill was brought forward by Lord John Russell, the failure of which was followed by great agitation. In the next year, however, it was passed, extending and to some extent redistributing the franchise. In the same year the Fenian movement for the independence of Ireland, which had long been in progress, culminated. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and severe measures resorted to to crush the movement. In 1868 the Disraeli ministry resigned, and Gladstone came into power, with the intention of trying to meet the difficulties in Ireland. The first step was the Disestablishment of the Irish Church. The next, the Irish Land Bill, which recognized that the tenant had some rights in the land which he cultivated, and provided for greater equity in the decision of legal questions between tenant and landlord. Many other reforms were instituted at home, and the government was one of great activity. In 1873 Gladstone brought forward the Irish University Education Bill, providing for the reorganization in some ways of the Universities in Ireland. This measure added so much to the unpopularity of the existing ministry that Gladstone dissolved Parliament, and appealed to the country. The elections returned the Conservative party to power, with Disraeli again as Prime Minister.

One of the first events of this administration

was the purchase by England from the Khedive of Egypt, the shares which he held in the Suez Canal.

In 1875 serious disturbances broke out in some of the provinces under the control of Turkey. Several of the European States, among them Russia, interfered on behalf of the provinces. In 1877 Russia declared war, and in a year had completely humbled Turkey. The probable possession of Constantinople by Russia, roused England to send a fleet to that city. Bismarck now proposed that a congress be held at Berlin, to discuss the relations between Turkey and Russia, and a treaty was made recognizing the independence of Roumania, Servia and Montenegro, creating new boundaries to old provinces, and establishing new ones, and defining the relations to exist between these provinces and the other European powers. The invasion of Afghanistan, the Zulu war in Africa, and the passage of an Education Bill for Ireland, were the last events of the administration, which retired from office in 1880.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

CHAPTER I.

- 1.—What were the first inhabitants of Britain called?
- 2.—To what race did they belong?
- 3.—In whose hands did their government lie?
- 4.—What nation first attempted the conquest of Britain? Under whom? With what success?
- 5.—When was the conquest completed? Under whom?
- 6.—What tribes next made incursions into Britain?
- 7.—What was the result?
- 8.—Where was the home of the English? What was their character?
- 9.—What was the result of seeking their aid?
- 10.—Which part of England first yielded to them?
- 11.—Name two of their leaders and tell where their victories were achieved.
- 12.—What became of the conquered Britons?
- 13.—How was the conquered country divided? How governed?
- 14.—Who might be called the first king of the English?
- 15.—When was Christianity introduced into Britain?
- 16.—What northern tribes other than the English made voyages to Britain?
- 17.—What was their object at first?
- 18.—In whose reign did they make settlements?
- 19.—How is the reign of Alfred marked?
- 20.—How did the kings employ the intervals between the Danish invasions?
- 21.—What means did Ethelred take to strengthen himself against the Danes?
- 22.—Who was the first Danish king of England?
- 23.—What division of the kingdom was agreed upon between the English and Danes?
- 24.—How did Canute try to gain the assent of the English to his claim?

- 25.—How did he gain the alliance of Normandy?
 - 26.—What was the cause of the war that threatened Harold? How was it averted?
 - 27.—What were the dangers that threatened on the accession of Edward the Confessor?
 - 28.—How did the English nobles show their resentment of Norman influence?
 - 29.—Who succeeded Edward the Confessor?
 - 30.—Upon what did William of Normandy base his claim to the throne of England?
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CHAPTER II.

- 1.—What two enemies was Harold called upon to meet in 1066?
- 2.—Where were battles fought? With what result?
- 3.—What attempt was made to oppose William?
- 4.—What was William's policy of government?
- 5.—What led him to have recourse to force in governing the English?
- 6.—What system of government did he introduce? Describe it.
- 7.—Who succeeded William the Conqueror?
- 8.—How was this succession regarded by the nobles?
- 9.—How did he seek to increase his revenue? With what result?
- 10.—What difficulties did he have outside of England?
- 11.—What was the object of the crusades?
- 12.—Who were the leaders of the crusade determined upon in 1095?
- 13.—How did Henry I. become king of England?
- 14.—What means did he take to secure himself?
- 15.—What was accomplished by his marriage?
- 16.—What means did Robert employ to obtain the throne?
- 17.—How was the difficulty settled?
- 18.—How did Normandy come into Henry's hands?
- 19.—Who were the claimants of the throne at Henry's death? Who succeeded in gaining it?
- 20.—What was the result of the civil war which followed?

CHAPTER III.

- 1.—What territory on the Continent did Henry II. possess?
- 2.—What were his first acts?
- 3.—By what trouble is his reign marked?
- 4.—What addition did he make to his kingdom?
- 5.—How did he seek to prevent contention among his children after his death? What was the result?
- 6.—How were his last years employed?
- 7.—What were the events of the reign of Richard I.? Who succeeded him?
- 8.—What had been the previous career of John?
- 9.—What trouble was he immediately called upon to meet?
- 10.—What is the history of John's struggle with the Church?
- 11.—What brought him to submission?
- 12.—What was the result of his French war?
- 13.—What led to the adoption of the Great Charter?
- 14.—When was it signed? How did it differ from former charters?
- 15.—What means were taken to secure the execution of its provisions?
- 16.—What effect did this have upon John?
- 17.—Whence did he seek aid, and with what result?
- 18.—How was French interference met?
- 19.—How did the troubles of John's reign affect the early part of that of Henry III.?
- 20.—What proved to be Henry's idea of government?
- 21.—What resulted from his attempt to carry out these ideas?
- 22.—With what event did the power of the barons reach its summit?
- 23.—What change in parliamentary representation was effected by them?
- 24.—What was the first conquest made by England under Edward I.? What title grew out of it?
- 25.—What gave rise to the war with Scotland?
- 26.—Who was at the head of the Scotch army at the battle of Stirling?
- 27.—In what battle was he defeated? What leaders continued the struggle?

28.—What was the character of Edward II.? How did he show it?

29.—What advantage was taken of it in Scotland?

30.—What was the result of the battle of Bannockburn?

31.—What was the cause of the deposition of Edward II.?

32.—Through whose agency was it effected?

33.—In what did Edward III. first show his ability to govern?

34.—Give the history of the Scotch war in the reign of Edward III.

35.—Trace the claim of Edward III. to the French throne.

36.—Who was the successful claimant?

37.—To what did Edward's failure lead him?

38.—What was the result of his first invasion of France?

39.—What two successes attended his second attempt?

40.—For what is one of these actions noted?

41.—Where else were English arms meeting success at this time?

42.—Why was Calais valuable to the English?

43.—What was the condition of England in the middle of the fourteenth century?

44.—What great battle did the Black Prince gain in 1356?

45.—What were the terms of the treaty of Bretigny?

46.—What was the cause of Edward's Spanish war? The final result?

47.—By what legislative progress are the reigns of the Edwards marked?

48.—What material progress was made? What great names belong to the reign of Edward III.?

49.—What led to the social disturbances in the reign of Richard II.?

50.—How did Richard try to escape dependence on Parliament?

51.—Under what pretence did the Duke of Lancaster return to England?

52.—Had he any claim to the throne?

53.—By what means did he obtain the crown?

54.—What became of Richard?

CHAPTER IV.

- 1.—How did Henry gain the influence of the Church?
- 2.—Who were the Lollards? What became of them as a sect?
- 3.—What brought Henry into collision with some of his nobles?
- 4.—Of what did Henry V. take advantage when he made his first invasion of France? What was his first great victory?
- 5.—How did the French king propose to settle Henry's claim to the French throne?
- 6.—Under whose direction was the French war carried on during the minority of Henry VI.?
- 7.—Who aided the French in raising the siege of Orleans?
- 8.—How else did she assist them? What fate did she meet?
- 9.—Which of England's possessions in France were left at the close of the war?
- 10.—Why was the Duke of York formidable as a rival to Henry VI.?
- 11.—What means were taken to strengthen Henry's cause? With what result?
- 12.—Why did Jack Cade assume the name of Mortimer?
- 13.—What was the cause of the outbreak which he headed?
- 14.—Into what position of trust was the Duke of York soon placed?
- 15.—Why did he take up arms?
- 16.—Give in outline the events which resulted in the flight of the Lancastrian king.
- 17.—Who was the first king of the house of York?
- 18.—What turned the influence of Warwick from York to Lancaster?
- 19.—What did that influence bring about?
- 20.—Where did Edward obtain assistance? What battle decided the contest?
- 21.—Who was made Protector during the minority of Edward V.?
- 22.—What use did he make of his power?

23.—What disturbed his peaceful possession of the throne?

24.—How was Henry Tudor's claim strengthened?

25.—How did Richard try to gain the good-will of the people?

26.—Where was the battle fought which overthrew Richard? Its date?

CHAPTER V.

1.—What was Henry VII.'s policy of government?

2.—What two pretenders claimed the throne during his reign?

3.—Tell the claim of each and the result of their attempts.

4.—What were Henry's relations with France? With Scotland? With Spain?

5.—How did the people regard Henry VIII.?

6.—What drew him into war with France? Its result?

7.—In what battle was James IV. of Scotland killed?

8.—How did Henry strengthen an alliance with France?

9.—Trace the career of Wolsey.

10.—Who were candidates for the throne of Austria on the death of Maximilian?

11.—What effect did the success of Charles have upon England?

12.—In what war did Henry become involved?

13.—What political considerations prevented the Pope from deciding Henry's domestic difficulties?

14.—How were these at last settled? What position was Henry forced to take?

15.—Who became Henry's adviser on Wolsey's fall?

16.—How did he augment the king's revenue?

17.—What was the condition of Ireland in this reign?

18.—How far did Henry VIII. sympathize with the Protestants?

19.—With whom did Henry make a political marriage?

20.—Who suffered for its want of success?

21.—How did Henry propose to unite the thrones of England and Scotland?

22.—Who was Protector during the reign of Edward VI.?

23.—What great changes were made in forms of worship?

24.—How did the Scotch regard the attempt to unite the two thrones? What was the result of their opposition?

25.—What difficulties were in the way of a complete establishment of Protestantism?

26.—Whom did Northumberland plan to make Edward's successor? Had she any claim to the throne?

27.—Who did succeed him? Who was Mary's mother?

28.—What did Mary immediately set out to do?

29.—How did she strive to help her cause?

30.—What unhappy results followed her marriage?

31.—What great loss did England sustain at the close of her reign?

32.—On what did Mary, Queen of Scots, base her claim to the English throne?

33.—What powerful ally had she? Through what means?

34.—What alliance did Elizabeth make?

35.—Whom did Mary marry, and what followed?

36.—What brought about her imprisonment?

37.—By what was her flight to England followed?

38.—On what grounds did Elizabeth justify her death?

39.—What had, meantime, been transpiring on the Continent?

40.—What was the Armada? In what year sent out?

41.—What English seamen were sent against it? With what result?

42.—What was the condition of Ireland during this reign?

43.—By what enterprises is Elizabeth's reign marked?

44.—What great writers belong to it?

CHAPTER VI.

- 1.—Who succeeded Elizabeth? By what right?
- 2.—What principles did he avow? What was his attitude toward the Catholics?
- 3.—What name was given to one of the plots against him? Why?
- 4.—Upon what struggle did James soon enter?
- 5.—How was he thrown into the power of the Commons?
- 6.—What prevented his aiding the cause of Protestantism? Why was he expected to do so?
- 7.—How did his conduct affect his people?
- 8.—What at last roused the king to declare war upon Spain?
- 9.—What important colonies were founded during his reign?
- 10.—How did the Commons resolve to hold Charles I. in check?
- 11.—How did Charles try to punish them? What was his success?
- 12.—What disastrous expedition was made against France?
- 13.—In what cause? With what effect?
- 14.—What was the Petition of Right?
- 15.—How else were the people growing estranged from the king?
- 16.—Trace the career of the Earl of Strafford.
- 17.—Who was the great opponent of ship-money?
- 18.—What part was taken by the Scotch in the general opposition to Charles?
- 19.—When did the Long Parliament meet? Who was its leader?
- 20.—Where did he believe the real power of government lay?
- 21.—Mention some of the work accomplished by the Long Parliament.
- 22.—What step hastened the outbreak of civil war?
- 23.—Name some of the important battles of the war, telling the result.
- 24.—What great general was victor at Marston Moor?
- 25.—What two parties arose out of the religious difficulties?

- 26.—What led to the execution of the king? When did it take place?
 - 27.—How was this step received outside of England itself?
 - 28.—Who was proclaimed king?
 - 29.—Where was he finally defeated?
 - 30.—How did Cromwell put an end to the contest between the army and Parliament?
 - 31.—What form of government was adopted?
 - 32.—How was peace maintained?
 - 33.—What followed soon after Cromwell's death?
 - 34.—What changes in legislation followed the restoration of the Stuarts?
 - 35.—How did Charles keep his promises in relation to religious liberty?
 - 36.—What war broke out soon after his accession?
 - 37.—What was the Triple Alliance?
 - 38.—How did the Commons answer the Declaration of Indulgence?
 - 39.—What did the passage of the Test Act disclose?
 - 40.—What led Charles to summon the Parliament of 1678?
 - 41.—What great bill was passed by it? What were its provisions?
 - 42.—How then did James succeed to the throne?
 - 43.—What degree of religious toleration did James observe?
 - 44.—To whom did England turn in her difficulty? Why?
 - 45.—What resistance was offered by James?
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CHAPTER VII.

- 1.—What troubles broke out in Scotland? In Ireland?
- 2.—What did the battle of the Boyne decide?
- 3.—How did the peace of Ryswick help England?
- 4.—What was the war of the Spanish Succession?
- 5.—How did England become involved in it?
- 6.—How did the Commons become reconciled to war with France?

7.—Who succeeded William III.? In accordance with what act?

8.—To whom did she give command of her army?

9.—What great battles did he fight?

10.—In what parts of Europe was the contest carried on?

11.—What important fortress did the English capture?

12.—What did Marlborough gain by the battle of Ramillies? By the battle of Oudenarde?

13.—When was the war closed, and by what treaty?

14.—What did England gain by it?

15.—In what year was the union with Scotland effected?

16.—Who stood at the head of Anne's government during its early part?

17.—What were the grounds for hostility to him?

18.—What was the claim of George I. to the throne?

19.—Who was the actual ruler of England during George's reign?

20.—What was the character of the reign?

21.—What attempt for the throne was made in 1715?

22.—What attempt was made to set aside the treaty of Utrecht? How was it met?

23.—What was the policy of Walpole? Name some of his acts. What led to his overthrow?

24.—In what war had England now become involved?

25.—What was its cause? When did it close? By what treaty?

26.—Who took advantage of England's condition at this time?

27.—In what battle were the Stuarts finally overthrown?

28.—How long did peace last?

29.—What was the policy of Pitt, the new minister?

30.—What was the Seven Years' War? When did it close? What did England gain by it?

31.—What is the history of the English in India during the reign of George III.?

32.—What was the cause of the trouble with America?

33.—Give that trouble in outline. With what event did it close?

34.—Who was prime minister during the war?

35.—To what European war did it lead?

- 36.—Who succeeded Lord North in the ministry?
- 37.—What measures did he attempt?
- 38.—What was the material condition of England at this time?
- 39.—What great movement took place in France towards the close of the century?
- 40.—How was it regarded in England?
- 41.—What was the origin of the great European war which broke out in 1792?
- 42.—How did England become involved in it?
- 43.—What great man made his appearance in the early part of the war?
- 44.—What was the relative success of the combatants?
- 45.—What led to the union with Ireland? In what year did it take place?
- 46.—What was the peace of Amiens? How long was it observed?
- 47.—Which countries were allied with England against Napoleon?
- 48.—Why did Napoleon give up his scheme of invading England?
- 49.—What did he accomplish by the battle of Jena?
- 50.—In what two parts of Europe was the war carried on?
- 51.—With what success in the South?
- 52.—How did Napoleon's course affect England's relations with America?
- 53.—How did it affect his own relations with Russia?
- 54.—What were the battles which broke his power?
- 55.—Who succeeded to the French throne?
- 56.—What was the progress of the war with America?
- 57.—By whom was the contest renewed in Europe?
- 58.—In what battle was Napoleon's power finally broken?
- 59.—Who commanded the allied army?
- 60.—What became of Napoleon after Waterloo?
- 61.—For what is the reign of George IV. chiefly remarkable?
- 62.—What reforms were undertaken during that of William IV.?
- 63.—Why is Victoria not queen of Hanover?
- 64.—What was the Chartist agitation?
- 65.—What attempts were made to remove the causes of discontent?

66.—What led to the withdrawal of the charter from the East India Company?

67.—What did the trouble with China effect?

68.—How did the Civil War in America directly affect England?

69.—How was the claim adjusted?

70.—What attempt did Louis Napoleon make in America?

71.—Upon what was it based? What was its result?

72.—What reform was effected in 1867?

73.—What were the reforms instituted by the Gladstone ministry of 1868?

74.—Who succeeded Gladstone? What were the first actions of this ministry?

75.—For what purpose was the Congress of Berlin summoned?

76.—What did it accomplish?

77.—When did the ministry go out of office?

78.—What were the last events of the administration?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1.—Give the date of accession of the Norman Kings, of the Plantagenets, of the Tudors, of the Stuarts, of the House of Brunswick.

2.—Whose was the longest reign? The shortest?

3.—How many female sovereigns has England had? Who was the first?

4.—Explain the claims of the Houses of York and Lancaster to the throne.

5.—Trace the double descent of James I. from Henry VII.

6.—To whose reign does the Habeas Corpus Act belong? The Great Charter? The Exclusion Bill? The Petition of Right? The Test Act? The establishment of free trade? The admission of Jews to Parliament? The Catholic Emancipation?

7.—Who was the "King-maker"?

8.—When and between whom was the battle of Hastings fought? Of Agincourt? Waterloo? Culloden?

Bannockburn? Crecy? Naseby? Flodden? Austerlitz? Barnet? Bosworth? St. Albans? Worcester?

9.—How far back in the line of Kings can the descent of George I. be traced?

10.—Locate Stirling; Bristol; Leipzig; Tewkesbury; Lutzen; La Rochelle; Rouen; Winchester; Berwick; Utrecht; Rheims; Ryswick.

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